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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 7, 1909.

The Week.

In the press dispatches summarizing the decision of the Supreme Court, in the 80-cent gas case, several large principles stand out, as they doubtless will in the complete opinion. The power of the State to regulate public-service corporations is implicitly affirmed in the broadest way. There is no limit, except that of confiscation of property. But it is not enough merely to allege that a given measure will be confiscatory in effect. The fact must be proved. That the Consolidated Gas Company had not clearly demonstrated that gas at 80 cents would deprive it of a due return on its capital, is the main reason assigned by the Supreme Court for dismissing the injunction of the lower court against the enforcement of the law. As to what is that reasonable return upon capital into which no Legislature can cut, the court fixed no rule. According to the decision, the rate may vary according to time and locality. The court suggests, in this particular case, 6 per cent. But what is its capital? That was the very point hotly in debate, both before the Legislative committee, the Master who heard evidence, and Judge Hough. The company claimed property worth \$90,000,000. The Master cut this down to \$83,000,000, and Judge Hough further reduced the sum to about \$60,000,000. On this matter, the Supreme Court makes no pronouncement in its decision. It does, however, fix one or two principles governing the proper estimate of capitalization: "The rate proposed must be with reference to the value of the property at the time when the rate takes effect." That is to say, the gas company is entitled to a due return, for example, on the land which it owns, and the return must be upon the present value of the land, not merely upon the sum which was paid for it. This principle, if applied throughout to plant, mains, etc., would make the cost of reproduction, not necessarily actual investment, the standard of valuation.

One vexed question remains—the capitalization of the company's franchises. These the court allows, or appears to

allow (we must wait for the full opinion), as fixed by the constituent companies themselves, at the time of consolidation, namely, \$7,781,000. At any rate, the court says that such a valuation having been made "pursuant to the statute," "the State should not now be heard to question the value of the franchises." But the court is careful to limit itself to the particular case before it. The questions respecting the capitalization of franchises in general it expressly leaves "undecided." But these questions are of the highest importance. If a public-service corporation can go, "pursuant to the statute," and fix any value it pleases upon its franchise, then the public is helpless—except in one way. It cannot by legislation compel lower rates from the company, for to do that would be to confiscate its property, if a swollen valuation of its franchisees is legally a part of that property; but it can construct parallel enterprises of its own. Lax permission to capitalize franchises, at inflated values, is then a direct encouragement to municipal ownership. That was doubtless in the minds of the framers of the New York Public Service Commissions Law of 1907, when they forbade the capitalization of franchises altogether. That, of course, governed only the future; but it is plainly desirable that the same principle should be applied, so far as possible, to corporations organized before the measure of Gov. Hughes became the law of the State. The new era upon which the States have entered in regard to regulation of public-service corporations promises to be a long one, filled with interesting and beneficial experiments. With the way for them now fully opened, legally, the idea of municipal and government ownership should recede further and further into the background.

The President's versatility and supple political talent come out once more in the special message on the Secret Service which he sent to the House of Representatives. Throughout, he roars with a most welcome gentleness. His words give the lie to the stories from Washington that Mr. Roosevelt was spoiling for a fight with Congress; that he was "collecting ammunition" for a savage

bombardment, out of which many Congressmen would emerge badly hurt. The actual bombardment turns out to be only with cotton wool. The President is both soft-spoken and grieved. He has been misunderstood. Nothing was further from his thoughts than to charge Congress or any members of it with corrupt motives or acts. Let him explain. What he said was true, as intended, but had been misinterpreted. Anyhow, he begged Congress to join him in letting those unhappy bye-gones be bye-gones, and in striving to reorganize the whole government detective service so as to make it a real terror to evil-doers. The message thus conceived may be taken as an apology, a plea in abatement, or a clever bit of tactics. All depends, we should say, upon the temper of Congress. If disposed to meet Mr. Roosevelt half way, it could drop the whole matter with a resolution of satisfaction that the President had not meant what his words seemed to mean, and intended no insult to Congress. But this is hardly to be expected. The feelings of Congressmen were mightily stirred up by Mr. Roosevelt's original language, and further action may be urged as necessary to vindicate the wounded dignity of Congress.

Mr. Taft has again expressed his ardent hope that the South may soon begin to divide on political lines, like the rest of the country. It is plain that he means to make the breaking up of the solid South a main policy of his Administration. He said on Saturday that he plans, early in his term of office, to visit the leading Southern cities. Beyond doubt he will get the heartiest of welcomes. The South takes to him personally, and likes his political ideas. Just now it is peculiarly effusive, partly because it looks upon him as a guest, and partly because it is glad to show how much it dislikes Bryan. The opportunity of the next President, therefore, to do something to bring about more normal political conditions in the Southern States, will be inviting. It will, however, have its perils. Mr. Taft has already shown, by his letter on the Maryland suffrage proposals, that he is not ready to consent to injustice to the negroes in order to curry favor with the South.

It is to be hoped, also, that he will not allow appeals to be made, in his name, to the cupidity of Southern protectionists, or to the itch of office-holders. Getting office is what is really meant by many when they talk about restoring to the South her old place in "the councils of the nation." But if, avoiding all these political pitfalls, Mr. Taft shall be able to make Southerners see the folly of always voting one ticket, he will have deserved well, not only of the South, but of the whole country.

It is good news that C. P. Taft has been induced to forego his aspirations to enter the Senate. Not only Ohio, but the country, is to be felicitated. If Senator Foraker was to be displaced—and that was inevitable—it was incumbent on the State to select a successor who should have something like his ability. Apparently, this truth has finally penetrated the minds of the powers that control the Republican organization of Ohio. This means the election of Congressman Burton. His success will be a great victory for public opinion over the machine; for it is clear that, while the bosses, big and little, were against him, the people of Ohio were for him. Not the least hearty congratulations are due to W. H. Taft. He will be freed from that most serious embarrassment—having a brother near the throne.

The Senate's approval of the bill appropriating \$400,000 for the purchase or erection of a building in Paris, to be used as a residence for the American Ambassador, means, in all probability, that within a reasonable time the United States will own embassies in all the important capitals. From many points of view this is altogether desirable. The strongest argument in favor of the change is that it will enable the American diplomats to live in accordance with their station and the custom of their diplomatic associates. By relieving them of the added expense, it may be, too, that we can lure back into the diplomatic service men whose chief distinction is not their wealth.

The designation of Rear-Admiral Capps, the chief naval constructor, as acting head of the bureau of steam engineering in the Navy Department is the first step toward that consolidation

of bureaus which has so long been needed. It is final proof of our contention that many reforms could be accomplished within the Department wholly without legislative aid or authority. Eventually, there should be but two bureaus, one of *matériel* and one of *personnel*, and then the Department will be organized more like a private business of the same scope. We cannot, however, help feeling some regret that the discredited chief naval constructor should be the one to inaugurate the system. His blunders in the construction of our recent battleships and his obstinate standing by these blunders, in the face of the prevailing sentiment among naval experts, make it unfortunate that he is to be the link between his own bureau and that of steam engineering, which is manned throughout by line and generally by sea-going officers. When the cruiser Yankee went on the rocks last autumn, Mr. Capps conceived the brilliant idea of floating her by pouring cement into her until the holes were covered. But he and his subordinates failed to ascertain that a jagged rock projected into the Yankee's hold. After cement worth \$125,000 had been emptied into the boat, it was discovered that the total effect had been to cement the Yankee to the rock, and Mr. Arbuckle's wreckers had as their first duty the undoing of this folly. If this is not a scandal of magnitude, what could be?

The inaugural address of Gov. Hughes was no perfunctory affair. It revealed the fact that he has been reflecting deeply upon the nature and needs of the government of this State. The Governor did not, it is true, anticipate the recommendations of his message this week, but he gave the general outline of his programme, and a distinct intimation of the spirit in which he means to carry it out. Not greedy of power, he yet will not shrink from the full responsibilities of his office. In his quiet statement that the Governor is the representative of the people, and that, "in common with all representative officers, it is his privilege to justify his position to the people to whom he is accountable," there is evidence that he will take no backward step in his plan of going to the people, if the Legislature will not heed. Nor were the Governor's powers of analysis ever better applied than in his descrip-

tion of the real reason why it is desired to keep control of the party in the hands of a snug little close corporation. It is, said Mr. Hughes, in order that the domination of selfish interests may be made easy, and that protection may be given to "those who find profit in law-breaking." The entire address was in the Governor's best vein of seriousness, with an edge of vigor that undoubtedly portends further valiant efforts on his part to render, in his own words, "loyal service to the people."

As truth will come out even in an affidavit, according to the saying of an English judge, so it sometimes comes out in a public document. House Document No. 1,208, of the present session of Congress, contains the correspondence leading up to the appointment of an American delegate to the recent International Copyright Congress at Berlin. In pointing out to the Secretary of State the fact that the United States had no right to be represented, because we have not adopted the Berne Convention relative to literary property, the Librarian of Congress suggested that this government regard itself as a "non-union participant." The phrase falls pat with current terminology. It seems to make us a "scab" among the nations, in the matter of copyright. Unfortunately, that is very much what we are. The leading civilized nations have formed a union to protect literary and artistic property, but we have refused to join it. Under labor-union practice, they are entitled to attack and outlaw us; but instead of that, they are courteous enough to receive us at their Congresses as a "non-union participant." Their hope undoubtedly is to kill us with kindness, or lead us to see the error of our ways and adhere to the Berne Convention with the rest.

Full accounts of the meeting in Bath, Maine, last week, in behalf of Charles W. Morse, show it to have been an extraordinary outpouring of the best citizens to testify to their regard for a convicted criminal. The Mayor of the city presided, and merchants, shipbuilders, and bankers were present to prove their undiminished confidence in "a most loyal son of Bath," "in his hour of trouble." The resolutions from which these phrases are cited, are a remarkable hodge-podge. They recite that Morse

was "innocent of any criminal act or intent," but at the same time, ask only that the reviewing court give him "the benefit of every reasonable doubt," and free him, if possible, from a "disproportionate" sentence of fifteen years, which, "to a man of Mr. Morse's age, is practically a life sentence." But the underlying sentiment is the really significant thing. Mr. Morse has been good to Bath, therefore he cannot be a bad man. In short, all moral and legal principles are to be lost sight of, when it is a question of "sympathy." A set of burglars passing resolutions in the interest of a "pal" could not be more indifferent to law and justice than these eminent citizens of a New England city. The least they can do is to refrain from any criticism of labor leaders, or any other class, who seek to have orderly legal process set aside, because it hurts their friends.

One of the worst of literary offenders is the critic who drags up out of the gray sink of oblivion men and books of no importance to current life. He is fairly open to protest, even though he revives a few pleasant things, as Walter P. Eaton has done while resuscitating Frederick Goddard Tuckerman in the January *Forum*. This Massachusetts lawyer of the mid-nineteenth century did not sing for the world. He cared so little to please that he neglected the elementary technique of his art. His admirer says there is not a perfectly formed sonnet—let alone a perfectly conceived one—in his one thin volume; and the sonnet was his favorite medium. Often he surrenders rhyme and rhythm. His messages are primitive: the old love of sunsets and rain, the puzzled pain over life's mysteries, grief for a departed wife. Almost every line is the voice of a simple nature-lover humming to himself in his garden, while, far away to the South, the civil war rages. There is scarcely a thought that has not been sung a thousand times before and since more exquisitely. On this score Tuckerman himself was probably not deceived. Humbly he accepts oblivion in the Berkshires and learns to like it, almost to pray for it:

I walk, unknowing where or why;
Or idly lie beneath the pine,
And bite the dry brown threads, and lie
And think a life well lost is mine.

Shall we not let him be well lost? Between gentlemen, it is worse than rude

to tear the winding sheet from a decently interred minor poet. It is unfair to the singer himself, and still more so to latter-day readers. The limping sonneteer, the echoer of platitudes, may have been a delightful gentleman; his conversation or his intimate life may have revealed a soul above stanzas; but, revived in a later age, he falls an easy prey to the critic, the historian, or—most dismal!—the sentimental. Better for his good name and peace, had the spell of forgetfulness never been broken.

Lord Cromer has been trying hard of late to show wherein the recent nationalistic stirrings in Egypt differ from those in Turkey, which have been so welcomed by the English people. Not long ago, at the time when several natives were executed at Denshawi for an attack upon British officers, Lord Cromer said that the basis of the trouble in Egypt was not political but religious; that the agitators aimed at Pan-Islamism, and therefore were to be repressed unless the situation of all Christians in Africa was to become dangerous. But to-day Lord Cromer avers that happenings in India, Persia, Turkey, and Egypt bear out an old prophecy of his that "intercourse with Europe would cause the bond of nationality to be substituted for that of religion." So it is a matter of nationality rather than of religion, after all. More than that, Lord Cromer thinks now that the first effect of the popular movement in Turkey has been to discourage the Pan-Islamists in Egypt. That is, a realized desire for self-government and a constitution in Turkey has not stimulated that dangerous fanaticism which was to make every European in Africa sleep upon his arms, but has weakened it. As the Manchester *Guardian* points out, the net result upon Egypt of the Turkish upheaval is that the "demand for popular reform has been strengthened and the stock European objections to it weakened."

Lord Cromer insists, however, that the difference between conditions in Turkey and Egypt, is that the "Turkish movement was based on solid grievances; the Egyptian on sentiment." But there was a great deal of sentiment in the uprising of the Young Turks—a sentimental desire to have a voice in their government, and it is precisely this

same sentiment that is causing the stirring in Egypt. The only difference is that in the one case the Turks were misruled by Turks, while in Egypt the people are well ruled by the British. Human nature is so constituted, however, that people of all climes prefer being plundered by their own, even if it be a Tammany Hall, rather than being well-governed by lordly persons of a different race and religion. That view does not suggest itself to Lord Cromer; but it is the secret of the Egyptian unrest, if not of that marvellous aspiration for modern institutions throughout the East, an aspiration which, because of its essentially democratic character, has such a great promise for all the world. Lord Cromer goes so far as to declare that he would become an ardent Egyptian constitutionalist at once if somebody could "show him a prospect that an Egyptian constitution could be created which would truly represent the views and interests of all the inhabitants of the Nile Valley," safeguard the rights of Turkey, and inspire the confidence of Europe. Well, in the light of recent events such a constitution does not sound so impossible.

After prolonged debates in Parliament and in the press, the French Chamber has refused by a vote of 330 to 221 to sanction the abolition of the death penalty. The majority is not so overwhelming as to discourage those who believe in the essential wrongfulness of capital punishment and its inefficiency as a deterrent of serious crime. The French Chamber acted undoubtedly under the stress of something like panic, induced by a succession of revolting assassinations, and a general increase of crime which has been attributed to the practical suspension of capital punishment through the exercise of Presidential clemency. As a matter of fact, the period of years taken to show an increase in crime is altogether too short. The case for abolition of the death penalty is pleaded in the *International* by Lino Ferriani, Italian *procureur-général*. In Italy, he asserts, where no sentence of death has been carried out since the time of King Humbert, the number of serious crimes is decreasing, "even in those districts disposed from early times to violent crimes owing to the ignorance and poverty of the population."

THE EARTHQUAKE IN ITALY.

The news of what may turn out to be the most terrible single calamity Europe and America have ever known failed to make at first a sufficiently deep impression on the minds of men. We of the modern world are spoiled for high emotion. We are so accustomed to have the little events of the day trumpeted that the great shock finds our senses dulled. The adventures of Harry Thaw are spread over three pages, and the Mediterranean catastrophe takes no more space. The lie manufactured in the newspaper office is proclaimed as loudly as the tragic destruction of San Francisco or St. Pierre. It is not that we have lost the sense of wonder, but that we are called upon twice and thrice a day to wonder at the petty ignominies and events of the market-place, the saloon, and the gutter. Add to this the fact that in this country, especially, our sense of the value of human life has become cheapened. Where Europe thrills at the loss of a dozen lives, we have grown accustomed to a yearly toll of thousands in mine and on railway. But if the newspapers have taken the edge off our emotions, they have immeasurably widened the range of our interest. In China, in Africa, in South America, men can no longer suffer or perish without the world's knowledge. And in such a disaster as has befallen the Italian people, the brotherhood of man becomes something more than a phrase.

Yet here again our country occupies a position apart. Other nations can give devastated South Italy food and money. In these measures of temporary relief we, too, can join, as Russia, China, Japan, and Martinique will testify. But for the means of permanent recuperation it is to the New World that Europe's unfortunates look. Europe can help in the crisis, but she cannot absorb the beggared Calabrians and Sicilians, who are sure to seek a new livelihood across the seas. Thousands will go to Argentina and Brazil, many to Tripoli, but the greater number of refugees will come to this country. Trade unions and champions of Anglo-Saxon dominance may cry out in horror, yet it is at times like these that America rises truest to her historic mission. This country has been peopled and nourished by the famines, the massacres, and the oppressions of the Old World. It

is still the natural asylum for the victims of Kishenev and Calabria.

In so far as Italy herself is concerned, the vast calamity is made worse by the fact that it has stricken the region which could least bear it. It will tend to emphasize the line of separation between the northern and southern parts of the Kingdom, which constitutes one of the greatest impediments to Italy's progress, remarkable though that has been. In their economic condition, in education, in nearly every form of advancement, the people of the old kingdom of the Two Sicilies are far behind their northern neighbors. Now there must come years of poverty and disorganization. Sicily loses its second largest city. In Sicily and Calabria a population of nearly 5,000,000 is brought to the verge of destitution. The effect must be felt in turn throughout Italy. When the government must lend its aid, instead of collecting taxes, the burden on other parts of the kingdom will grow appreciably heavier. But it must be added that admirable courage and resourcefulness have marked Italy's history since unification.

The enormous loss of life was due in part to the congestion of the population. Italy as a whole supports 305 inhabitants to its every square mile. In Sicily the ratio is 375; and about unhappy Messina the ratio rose to 456. We think of Sicily as so exclusively an agricultural country—the land of wheat, oil, and citron—that it is surprising to find over one-fourth of its population of some 3,800,000 congregated in cities having more than 25,000 inhabitants. The soil is parcelled out among great landowners, holders of the ancient *latifundia*, who, with their tenants and sub-tenants, crowd together in the cities, when the week's or the season's cultivation is done. That a tremendous earthquake coming upon such human congestion should work immense loss of life, was inevitable.

Will the dreadful fate of Messina, of Reggio di Calabria, of numerous smaller towns that have gone the way of earthquake, fire, and flood, doom them as sites for future human habitation? Not if the example of other similar disasters may be taken into account. Man's capacity for getting used to living on a volcano's edge, actually as well as metaphorically, is an illustration both of the potency of habit

and of the optimism inherent in human nature. Or, if we wish, we can call it a sublimated pessimism, a disenchantment which recognizes that death lurks as well on prairie and sandy ocean beach as on volcanic formations; so why take the trouble? It would seem that Messina has had ample warning and foretaste of what has befallen her, yet for twenty-seven hundred years people have gone on believing that the blow would not come in their time, or would fall on their neighbors, never on them. Great cities are founded on sites offering some natural advantage or other, and it seems likely that the value of Messina's harbor, like that of San Francisco's, will continue to outweigh the danger of earthquake. And, after all, nature, which works havoc, can also be kind. She has untold riches. The wealth of the world increases rapidly, and within two decades a devastated San Francisco or Messina may rise complete again from its ashes.

SICILY.

After the common compassion of human nature, the Sicilian disaster must have brought to many minds a sense of tragic incongruity. The very name of Sicily is a forgetfulness of the present and an evocation of long romance; and suddenly into this charmed memory there breaks the outrageous reality that is always waiting at the heart of the world. Travellers in that island, looking down on the columns of great temples that have lain for ages among the flowers, muse sentimentally on the beauty of decay; and in a moment the actual forces of ruin are at work, cruel and hideous and not at all considerate of sentiment. Even the dryasdust historian has been beguiled of his dulness by the Sicilian legend, and we have heard that Freeman, bearded pedant as he was, would wander over the hills in a kind of childlike trance. And well he might, for he walked in fairyland.

On that island, in the gray dawn of romance and history, Odysseus, blown into the Western seas far from his Ithacan home, landed with his men, and by a cunning stratagem outwitted the Cyclops. Through the Strait of Messina also he sailed between the two rocks whose monstrous rage reads like the reminiscence of some volcanic catastro-

pe of the far past or the vague prophecy of some disaster to come:

We groaning sailed the strait. Here Scylla lay,
And there divine Charybdis, with huge throat
Gorging salt waves, which when she cast away
She spumed with hisses (as when fire makes hot)
Some cauldron) and the steamy froth up-shot
Wide o'er both rocks. But when she gorged again,
Drunk with abysmal gurglings, one might note

The dark sands of the immeasurable main
Gleam iron-blue. The rocks loud bellowing
roared amain.

There, too, *Æneas* landed, fleeing from Troy to Italy. There his aged father died and was buried. On that strand the games were celebrated, and from this beach the women of the band looked out over the deep sea, sighing over the toils still before them, and plotting to surrender the promise of an eternal city for present ease. Their words, it is said, were often on the lips of *Littré*, the lexicographer, as without rest he finished one task and prepared for another:

Heu tot vada fessis!
Et tantum superesse mari!

From legend Sicily emerges for a while into history that is almost as romantic: Phalaris and his brazen bull, whose terrors the great Bentley renewed in England when he smote the pretenders to learning; the battle of Himera—fought, as was popularly believed, on the same day as Salamis—when the Carthaginians, losing a hundred and fifty thousand men dead on the field, left the western sea to Greece as the Persians left the eastern; the ruthless destruction of the Athenian army at Syracuse, which ended forever the supremacy of Athens.

And then from the clash of armies we pass, not again to adventurous romance, but to a literature that weaves a conscious, voluntary spell. Some of Pindar's greatest odes were written for the Sicilian lords victorious in the games, and in his lines we still see the young men of Greece, as we see them in the sculpture of Phidias, moving in procession with the gods, themselves divinely fair and proud. In the court of Hieron at Syracuse might be seen, perhaps at one table, Epicharmus, *Æschylus*, Simonides, Bacchylides, and Pindar; and in the same city Plato undertook to bring down to earth the laws of his

ideal republic—and lost his pains. But if Plato failed philosophically to make Sicily the wedding-place of the real and the ideal, another visitor from the East succeeded. Since Theocritus, a scholar from Cos, wrote his idyls of the Sicilian goatherds and fishermen, Sicily, like Arcadia, has been the magic pastoral land of the poets. In this secret valley the sorceress sang her midnight imprecations to the moon:

Turn, magic wheel, draw homeward him I love.

Hushed are the voices of the winds and seas;

But O not hushed the voice of my despair.

In that wattled hut the two fishermen dreamed of catching golden fish. On this strip of windy beach sat the Cyclops Polypheme, piping his songs of love to the ocean nymph Galatea, while she leaped in the foam and pealed his dog with apples. So completely was the island identified with these pastoral tales, that Virgil minglesthe names of Sicily and Arcadia together as if they were one land—or no land:

There forests murmur aye, and pines discourse;

And lovelorn swains, and Pan, who first re-claimed

From idleness the reed, hath audience there.

Begin, my flute, a song of Arcady.

In that no-man's land Virgil places the one incident that seems to be reminiscent of his own youth in northern Italy: Within our orchard-walls I saw thee first, A wee child with her mother—(I was sent To guide you)—gathering apples wet with dew.

Ten years and one I scarce had numbered then;

Could scarce on tiptoe reach the brittle boughs.

I saw, I fell, I was myself no more.

By an odd coincidence, these lines with their close of almost mystical passion—

Ut vidi, ut perii! ut me malus abstulit error!—

were picked out by both Voltaire and Macaulay as the best in all Virgil's works.

Modern poets, writers of epic and pastoral and drama, have carried on the tradition to the present day. Milton, wishing to find a symbol for Paradise, could not do better than compare his garden with

that fair field
Of Enna, where Proserpin gathering flowers,
Herself a fairer flower, by gloomy Dis
Was gathered—

as indeed Paradise is but an Arcadian dream among the Jews. Matthew Ar-

nold's most romantic scene is from the summit of *Ætna*, looking over . . . that other fainter sea, far down, O'er whose lit floor a road of moonbeams leads To *Ætna's* Liparean sister-fires And the long dusky line of Italy.

And so again we meet with romance playing above these forces of ruin, and the mind returns to the actual devastation of the land. Who shall read the lesson of this incongruity of fancy and reality? Who shall tell the moral of the present event? In a moment a whole people is obliterated, "as a wet sponge obliterates a painting," our trust in evolution and some far-off divine event seems, in the sight of such things, like another idle vision of the poets.

A EUROPEAN CONFERENCE.

The movement of events within Turkey has diverted attention from general international politics in the Near East, which only a few weeks ago threatened a serious crisis. We, who watch European affairs from a distance, content to make broad estimates for comparatively long stretches of time, cannot see the problem in the same way that Europe does. To her, the minute shifting and balancing of diplomatic business carry serious meaning from day to day. As we look upon it here, there is no reason why Austria's annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina should provoke war. The deed is done, and Europe, including Turkey, is prepared to recognize the accomplished fact, provided certain concessions and rectifications are made. Such readjustment can be arranged either through a European conference or through separate negotiation among the various states. But the latter procedure is, on the face of it, so cumbrous, so adapted to intrigue and counter-intrigue, and so likely to excite irritation, that from the first the calling of a conference has seemed inevitable. All this aside from the fact that Austria's undoing of the work of one European congress naturally calls for another congress to lend its sanction to what has been done.

Austrian diplomats have, it is true, been fencing and delaying. Thus the Turkish boycott on Austrian goods served as an excuse for protracting negotiations. Austria would not discuss the question of a settlement with Turkey until the boycott was suspended. Then, when in that matter the Turkish gov-

ernment assumed the correct attitude and was ready to begin parley once more, Austria experienced a sudden change of mind. She was reported to have conceded Turkey's claim to an indemnity, was supposed to be negotiating on that basis, when all at once she decided that an indemnity she would not pay, and a conference—well, a conference she might like or mightn't, she wasn't quite sure yet. Thus the affair seems to stand at present, and thus Europe, following, as we have said, the almost hourly fluctuations and rather vague "an if I woulds" and "an if I mights" of professional diplomacy, is inclined to be somewhat disheartened at the slow progress towards a definite understanding. The Paris *Temps*, which, as the inspired voice of the French government, came out, the first organ in Europe, for a conference, now speaks in disenchantment. Where do we stand, it asks. True, "it will never be too late to turn pessimist," but the *Temps* feels quite sure "that it is much too soon to play the optimist," and can only deplore the sad waste of time, "ten weeks lost for agreement and pacification, ten weeks of useless *pourparlers*, and ineffective intercommunication of views, ten weeks of impotent diplomacy. Europe, regarded as a moral entity, does not move forward at all."

Looking, however, beyond the vicissitudes of the day, it seems probable that a conference for settlement of the Near Eastern question will meet. As early as the middle of October, France, Great Britain, and Russia had come to an agreement not only on the necessity of a conference, but upon a common programme. To this programme, it is true, Russia has been adding demands of her own in her private negotiations with Austria, but that does not affect the question of a conference in itself. Italy's position was clearly formulated in the early days of December, when Foreign Minister Tittoni declared formally to the Chamber that "changes effected in international agreements are not to be seriously thought of until they have secured the ratification of all contracting parties." Of Germany's attitude there was, and still is, some doubt. Von Bülow has stated in the Reichstag that he agrees with Sir Edward Grey in thinking that a conference "may be a great sedative or an exciting stimulant. We wish that it may act as a sedative."

Von Bülow added that in any case Germany would stand by its ally, but the general inclination is to interpret his pronouncement as in favor of a congress.

If Europe, then, is pessimistic, it is not with regard to the chances of a conference, but with regard to its outcome—as to the terms which the conference will attempt to impose upon Austria and the terms which Austria will accept. Austria is apparently determined to make no concessions to the Servian population within or without her boundaries. Russia is believed to be insisting on such concessions—substantial compensation of some kind to Servia and Montenegro, and guarantees for the incorporated population of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Agreement upon the former point would not appear difficult; on the latter Austria will probably remain firm, since she can hardly permit a foreign Power to question her conduct towards her own subjects. Turkey will ask for money. That concession should not be difficult, since the Ottoman government can damage Austrian commerce to an amount greater than any indemnity that might be suggested. As for the programme drawn up by England, France, and Russia, in October, of its nine points, only one will be combat-ed by Austria—territorial compensation to Servia and Montenegro by a "rectification" of the boundary between Bosnia-Herzegovina and Novi-Bazar. Yet greater interests than these have been disposed of by general conferences. Tangible ground for pessimism is therefore very slight.

FIFTY YEARS OF DARWINISM.

American scientists celebrated at Baltimore last Friday the centenary of Darwin, and the fiftieth anniversary of the publication of "The Origin of Species." Many came to praise, and some, very likely, to bury him. Buried, at any rate, his speculations about pangenesis may easily be under the shovel-fulls of counter-hypotheses which have since been proposed or come into vogue—Kölliker's saltation, Nägeli's automatic perfecting principle, De Vries's mutants, and so on. It is, of course, the prerogative of a great pioneering genius to leave some minor errors which give dozens of smaller men a chance for fame in correcting them. This has been eminently true in Darwin's case; there

has been a flood of articles and pamphlets and books setting right his ob-servations at this point or that, and checking off or enlarging his facts. Furthermore, we are told that Darwin was not so original as has been asserted. His theory was foreshadowed by poets like Lucretius, Emerson, and Tennyson, was anticipated by Lamarck, entered into Spencer's philosophizing, was hit upon independently by Wallace. All true, but what does it signify? Where others dreamed, Darwin saw and showed the actual fact. For guesses, he gave proofs. We know what Huxley thought of the gossamer spinnings of Herbert Spener, compared with the solid structures of Charles Darwin. Not to those who dimly groped at truths "darkly joined, deep-seated in our mystic frame" do we yield all honor, but to the man who made them current coin.

Honest Darwinians will admit that much nonsense has been uttered in Darwin's name, and that his doctrines have been tortured into baneful shapes and cruel applications. It is true that the shibboleths of Darwinism have often been used to darken counsel by words without wisdom. Under the pretence of making it strictly Darwinian, education has sometimes been turned into a travesty. Similarly, morality has been described as merely a "protective coloring," or a device of the strong to keep the weak in subjection. The truth has been defined as only the idea that out-lives its rivals. Murderous competition has been defended because nature is shown by Darwin to favor the swift and the powerful. For these and other per-versions of his teachings he has been, and doubtless will be again, charged with responsibility. But what does all this matter?

With every allowance or needed concession, it remains undeniable that Charles Darwin compelled two genera-tions to think in terms of his thought. No really educated man, no scholar in whatever branch of learning, has been able to expel from his mind the ideas which Darwin lodged there. His great conceptions of descent with modifica-tion, and of environment and struggle as the chief causes of variation, have permeated not only science, but history, religion, and all studies of society and of politics. We cannot get away from them. Even if we try intelligently to attack Darwinism, we have to do it

with the weapons of Darwinism. This is greatness enough for any thinker. He may have been wrong in a given theory, but he at least taught men for fifty years how to theorize. Setting aside all his discoveries for the moment, and admitting that he put no infallible organon into the hands of thinkers, and did not solve the ultimate mysteries of the universe, he yet forced his contemporaries, and the generation following his own, to make their thoughts flow in the moulds which he first shaped. We can no more avoid thinking in terms of evolution than we can cease breathing.

This second nature, mentally, which Darwin imposed upon the world was born partly of his themes and partly of his method. His subjects were of universal human interest. How the earth about us and man upon it came to be what they are, is a question which concerns every man with a soul above the clods. Thus Darwin was sure of his audience; and, having got it, he gripped its attention by a supreme exhibition of scientific method. Vast and patient labor in accumulating the facts, each one tested in a very passion for accuracy and a profound belief in "salvation by verification"; then the employment of the highest powers of the scientific imagination, controlled by the severest canons of deductive logic; finally, a cautious marking out of causes and of consequences—this was the work of Darwin as exponent of the scientific way of attacking difficult problems. It was a model by which the whole world was impressed, and to which it has more and more sought to conform. Darwinism as a body of doctrines men may qualify or reject; but the methods of Darwin they cannot disavow, without writing themselves down champions of inaccuracy and apostles of loose thinking.

The indirect, subtle, and almost unperceived effects of Darwin's teachings are more remarkable than his direct achievements. He wrote very little, explicitly, about theology, yet he modified it from skin to heart. Charles Darwin never figured as a polemic, but his doctrine has, to many a man, been like a sword, piercing to the dividing asunder of soul and spirit. Old beliefs vanished, not because Darwin attacked them, but because they could not live in the mental atmosphere which

he created. It is true that one doctrine of theology he directly attacked and destroyed—the doctrine of special creation. All frank and intelligent theologists now admit that the old argument of final causes—the argument from design, the argument of Paley and the "Christian Evidences" generally—can no longer be employed. But to many another article of the orthodox faith did the dissolving acid of Darwin's scientific method quietly spread. It was not that he combated it; it simply evaporated and disappeared before him. Men could not always give an exact account of what had happened to their creeds. They simply knew that Darwin had given them a new way of looking at everything, and had made many old things pass away, for them, forever.

On its practical side, Darwinism has undoubtedly had a depressing effect upon some who could not see or could not bear the whole truth. The reign of natural law may seem to crush out individual initiative, and to make mercy and justice sound like idle words. But this is only so long as we do not perceive that natural law covers human energy, too, and shows it how best to wreak itself. In the new way of looking at things, which came to the world from Darwin, there is hope and cheer, if we but take the matter aright. Only consider what his doctrine of the shaping power of environment is leading us to do in bettering the conditions of the poor, the defective, the prone to crime. His demonstration that circumstances may make or break a man, is a clarion call to humanitarian zeal. And his teaching of the infinite variability of species, and of the indefinite progress which man may make in the cultivation of humane and moral qualities, is one that looks distinctly to the perfectibility of the race.

GROWTH OF THE AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY.

The annual automobile show in this city indicates that the automobile "craze" has not abated in this year of financial depression. Indeed, the bad times seem to have helped the manufacturers in several directions. Some weak and ill-managed concerns have gone to the wall, and others have consolidated to their mutual benefit; while the prices of the product of still others have fairly been cut in half. This is

emphatically a case where lowered cost means an increase of business. The automobile has long since passed out of its original classification as a toy of the rich. It has become as much a necessity as the trolley car, and the bounds of its usefulness have not yet been reached; the farmers of the West, for instance, are only just beginning to understand the financial advantage in being able to make quick delivery of produce or to send rapidly to town for some sudden need. As soon as a standard cheap car can be produced, of a simple type, that does not require special mechanical aptitude in the operator, and that may be run inexpensively, there will be no limit to the automobile market. Already there are cars for \$500 and \$750 that give excellent service; and the extraordinary drop in the price of tires, in some cases from \$96 to \$37, has cut down the maintenance charge which bore most heavily upon the motorist of slender means.

Hitherto, the manufacturers have found it difficult to supply the demand; the check the industry has received will probably enable them to catch up. In the future, then, there will be more care in the construction of cars, a greater desire to produce strong and simple engines, and that striving after improvements which is the greatest benefit of keen competition. Hitherto, almost anything called an automobile has sold, and sold easily. The whole movement now is towards the production of motor-cars that shall have in their names a recognized certificate of merit. Some of the more popular cars have already attained to this fortunate position, but even the specimens of the best of them are very unequal. The American mechanic, although more versatile and self-reliant than the French or German, is not so thorough; hence cars that follow each other out of the same factory sometimes give very different grades of service to the purchasers, and the fault is not altogether with the chauffeurs. The industry, in brief, has needed an opportunity to "settle down" and to get through some of the phases of growth inevitable when one considers what an infant it is in years, and what a giant in respect to the capital invested. The value of the American motor-car product in 1907 reached the astounding figure of \$100,000,000. This is the output

of some 253 manufacturers, of whom nearly 100 are of importance in the trade. Yet the business is only ten years old on this side of the ocean. Naturally, so sudden an expansion has brought with it evils, both in manufacture and marketing—witness the extravagant salaries and commissions, the needless outlays for press agents and racing cars. But, all in all, these excesses of prosperity are easily curable, and the fact remains that within a decade the skill and ingenuity of American workmen are producing cars that compete with the best foreign makes, as appears from the steady annual decrease in the value of imported cars.

We are not of the opinion that the automobile trade would be seriously disturbed even if the present tariff of 45 per cent. ad valorem were wholly done away with in the coming revision. As the Italian Chamber of Commerce of this city pointed out to the Ways and Means Committee:

In no other country is the material entering the manufacture of automobiles—viz., steel, iron, brass, wood, leather, rubber, glass, etc.—cheaper or as cheap as in the United States, and this economic advantage, securing already to domestic manufacturers a natural protection, is more than sufficient to counterbalance any difference in the cost of labor, especially considering that in this line of manufacture, requiring specially skilled labor, the difference between wages paid abroad and in this country is by no means notable, if at all existent.

In addition there are, of course, the freight rates and insurance premiums to be taken into account. Moreover, many foreign cars built for European conditions are unfitted for use in America, especially in rural districts, such as those of the Middle West, where the roads are of a kind wholly undreamed of in Europe. Indeed, it is the mud of these highways that accounts for the high-wheel automobile buggies many farmers are now using. Again, foreign competition is as great a stimulus to American inventors and makers as is the domestic, and such competition is likely to prevent the formation of an automobile Trust. Moreover, as Charles H. Sherrill pointed out to the Ways and Means Committee, our New York city carriage-makers might have been driven to the wall by the rise of the automobile, but for the fact that American bodies have been placed on 90 per cent. of the imported chassis. As the value of all the chassis entered at

the port of New York aggregated \$16,896,983.71 for the four years ended June 30, 1908, an idea may be obtained of what the 90 per cent. of this business has meant to our carriage-makers.

However the tariff be adjusted, the opportunities for American makers, we repeat, are enormous. The field for low-priced cars is theirs exclusively, and with the \$500 car they may yet invade Europe. If any one doubts that the final disappearance of all horse-pulled vehicles except for pleasure-driving is near at hand, let him walk up Fifth Avenue some afternoon. The success of the taxicab is driving "back to the country" many a well-worn cab-horse. The commercial automobile is only at the beginning of its development—another great chance for the manufacturer. Already large concerns like the General Electric Company and the American Locomotive Company are attacking the problem, and some of the best makers of high-priced cars are likewise turning their attention to this matter.

A TEACHER OF THE OLD SCHOOL.

Benjamin Franklin Clarke, professor emeritus of mechanical engineering, and for more than forty years a member of the Brown faculty, died in Providence last week. This, with two or three lines more, was all the New York papers printed, and indeed all the event was worth as mere news, but those of us whose memories run back a generation or more cannot but be moved by the fact that these words recorded the passing of another of the few surviving college teachers of the old school. They were—we are beginning now to speak of them in the past tense—seldom great scholars or distinguished investigators; but they were faithful and competent instructors, men of cultivation and high character, whose influence was exceedingly wholesome. Of this class Professor Clarke was an excellent example. In discussing his labors and achievements we have in mind not so much the individual as the type; and our object is not to praise those who have passed beyond the reach of our voices, but rather to express our gratitude to those of that rapidly dwindling company who are yet with us.

He came to his work when as yet the function of the highly trained specialist was scarcely understood by our educators. Nearly every college chair was occupied by a professor who was, as the phrase is, expected to fill a whole bench. One man would often have as his field mathematics and all the natural sciences; another, all the modern languages; another, all the classics; and still another, literature, metaphysics, ethics, and economics. The scholarship which was possible under such circumstances—unless the professor were a man of uncommon energy and capacity—was rather elementary. The teacher had gone but a little way beyond the point to which he carried his classes. Graduate study was hardly known in America; and the youth who had taken his bachelor's degree with credit, was thought to be fairly prepared for a position in the faculty. The modern discipline is, of course, far superior. Three or four years of research, crowned by a doctor's degree, afford a technical equipment with which that of forty or fifty years ago is not to be compared. Our young Ph.D.'s know more of their subjects than many of their predecessors ever dreamed of acquiring. And yet, if the young Ph.D. has the defect of his virtue—an intense narrowness that makes for erudition rather than wisdom—the old teacher had the virtue of his defects, that is, a wide range of interest and sympathy that gave him ripeness and wisdom and made him an effective instructor and leader of youth. He could play many parts, and play them well. Professor Clarke, for instance, was twice drafted to act as president of Brown, for a year each time. The duties of a *locum tenens* were delicate and difficult; but he discharged them admirably. Tact, firmness, poise, judgment, grasp of multifarious details, dignity and appropriateness in public utterances—these features of his administration would hardly be looked for in the latter-day mathematician of the straitest sect.

From what we have said, it is clear that the strength of the old-fashioned teacher lay in his personality rather than in his attainments. Whether one learned much from him or not—and how little actual knowledge one gets from the best of colleges and teachers!—it was a good thing to be with him. By example as well as by precept, he inculcated the sound gospel of attacking one's tasks steadily and without whimpering. Boys were not expected to like their lessons, but they were expected to learn them—thoroughly. "Hinnessey," says Mr. Dooley, "it doesn't matter what

a boy raves so long as he hates it." That view would have seemed rather extreme to Professor Clarke; but once at the end of a weary day he remarked that the kindergarten seemed to have produced freshmen who thought everything must be made amusing, and he feared that illustrated stereopticon lectures would soon be the only means of capturing the wandering attention of these lads. At any rate, he would have agreed with Horace D. Taft, who declared in a recent issue of the *Yale Alumni Weekly*:

There is in this life a great deal of work to be done that is dry, hard, and uninteresting, and a vital part of a boy's education, if not the vital part, is the learning to do hard things, even drudgery, with courage, determination, a sense of duty, and even cheerfulness.

It was his sense of faithfulness to duty that filled the pupils of Professor Clarke as well as his colleagues with profound respect for him and a genuine affection.

These lofty ideals of conduct and character are not destroyed by the process of specialization, but in emphasizing as strongly as our college authorities do the necessity of technical acquirement, they appear now and then to neglect the weightier matters of the law. Sane men can have no quarrel with research and the advancement of science; but in this world there are other ends also to be served. At Baltimore last week Prof. Edward L. Nichols said very truly: "We need not merely research in the universities, but universities for research." There is a distinction, however, between the university and the college; and the corollary to Professor Nichols's theorem is: "We need not merely good teaching in the colleges, but colleges devoted to good teaching." The term good teaching includes not only proper drill in the various branches of the curriculum, but that more potent instruction and inspiration that come from contact with men of moral as well as intellectual substance. We hope, then, that in the visible reaction against excessive specialization, our colleges may remember one great source of their strength in the past, may be more content to leave to the university those graduate studies that belong to the university, to stick less rigorously for the Ph.D. as the essential qualification for a place in the faculty, and to set a higher value on men of general cultivation and fine character; in short,

to keep alive that race of teachers of the old school which, as the death of such men as Professor Clarke reminds us, is now threatened with extinction.

THE ECONOMISTS AND SOCIOLOGISTS.

ATLANTIC CITY, December 31.

The twenty-first annual meeting of the American Economic Association was held in Atlantic City December 28 to 31. Three smaller bodies, the American Sociological Society, the American Statistical Society, and the American Association for Labor Legislation, convened at the same time and place. Several joint sessions were devoted to subjects of common interest. The economists and the students of social science canvassed jointly the theme of Modern Industry and Family Life, while Employers' Liability, Industrial Insurance, and Public Boards of Arbitration provided matter to engage at once the attention of the economist and the reformer of labor laws. The experiment of meeting at a place where no academic institution exists to play the rôle of host was generally pronounced successful. There was no disruption of the programme by intruding luncheons, receptions, and private dinner parties.

On the closing night the Economic Association held a public dinner attended by over a hundred. There was an excellent commingling of speeches by economists and jurists. Three of the judges of the Supreme Court of New Jersey spoke, and Judge J. B. Dill acted as toastmaster. The annual address of the retiring president, Prof. Simon N. Patten, of the University of Pennsylvania (previously printed in the *Economic Bulletin*), was devoted to "The Making of Economic Literature." Though the prescription offered by Professor Patten will hardly be endorsed in its entirety by many economists, its central thesis—the avoidance of over-elaborated technical hypothesis and the primacy of a first-hand acquaintance with the facts of the market—is highly salutary. More disputable perhaps is Professor Patten's ambition to exorcise the economist from the library and to convert him into a journalist pure and simple with a hankering for the purple patch and the telling phrase. One advantage of printing the address in advance of its delivery was seen in the well-considered and judicial discussion it evoked. If the critics had not had time to reflect after reading it, a testy and perhaps a diverting, but a profitless debate would probably have ensued.

The chief paper on pure economic theory was read by Prof. J. B. Clark of Columbia, on "Collective Bargaining." In essence it was a reply to the query whether law-abiding labor unions which

make no attempt at monopoly through the closed shop or the closed union "can materially help men to get as much as the true standard of wages requires." (The "true standard" of wages, according to Professor Clark, is the value of the marginal product of social labor.) The conclusion drawn was that union treasuries allow the unionists to hold out longer in case of an eventual strike, and thus to drive a better bargain for the speedier adjustment of their pay to the value of their product. When rival employers invade the territory of the employer whose mills are shut down, "the enforced yielding point of the employer comes earlier" than that of the men. Unfortunately there was not time for full discussion—indeed "all eternity's too short" for threshing out most of the issues raised in these meetings—but several suggestive criticisms were offered to the solution presented or the philosophy on which the solution was based. Prof. A. C. Miller of the University of California, contended against the view that the wage-earners are the only class whose actual pay lags behind the values they create. Prof. T. S. Adams of the University of Wisconsin was inclined to challenge the naive productivity theory of wages out and out, insisting that bargaining power was an essential determinant of wage-contracts, and differed essentially from objective productivity. A real contribution to the facts of collective bargaining was made by Prof. G. E. Barnett of Johns Hopkins. He made it clear that as regards money wages the individual worker unaided can often enforce his claim to a warranted advance, but that collective bargaining alone can force concessions in the duration of the working day and in other conditions under which labor is performed.

The joint session to consider legislation affecting laborers was opened by an address by Prof. H. W. Farnam of Yale, president of the Association for Labor Legislation. He distinguished sharply between legislation passed in the interest of race preservation, and legislation designed to bestow benefit on operatives at the expense of other classes. Laws of the first kind are illustrated by enactments for the protection of women and children in factories. Laws of the second kind are such as impose on employers the insurance of their employees. Race preservation, or what has been dubbed "posteriorism," he held, was amply justified. The chief drawback to sane legislation in this matter is found in the fact that "of all the industries of the United States law-making is perhaps the most backward." Legislation of the second sort was pronounced generally fraught with risk. It was a rather notable fact that the assumption seemed to go without protest that additional protective labor legislation was necessary. Some of its

practical difficulties, from the point of view of the statute draughtsman, were pointed out by Prof. M. O. Lorenz of Wisconsin; and F. L. Hoffman, Newark, N. J., insisted on the imperative necessity of making a trustworthy statistical inventory of industrial accidents and the attendant illness before embarking on a policy of industrial insurance.

In the joint session with the Sociological Society the chief interest centred in the papers descriptive of the recent social census of Pittsburgh. These papers were very much in point since the general topic for discussion was the influence of modern industry and city life upon the family. Miss Margaret F. Byington took Homestead for her text, to which she has devoted some weeks of intensive study. She spoke discriminately from personal knowledge, well analyzed, and certainly presented a sombre picture of the reaction of the industrial conditions upon the home life of the workers. The general purpose and results of the Pittsburgh Survey were summed up by Dr. Edward T. Devine. The aim of the survey was to offer "a structural exhibit of the community as a whole," and the extent of the investigation was rendered possible through the assistance of the Sage Foundation. It was enough to make the ears of a sensitive protectionist tingle to hear this exposure of the economic life of his Mecca. The spot of all others on earth where the worker's wage should be highest is found to be characterized first, by "an altogether incredible amount of overwork by everybody, best typified by the twelve-hour shift seven days in the week in the steel mills and on railways"; second, by "low wages for the great majority of the laborers employed by the mills, so low as to be inadequate to the maintenance of a normal American standard of living; wages adjusted to the single man in the lodging house, not to the responsible head of a family"; third, "still lower wages for women"; fourth, "an absentee capitalism with bad effects, strikingly analogous to those of absentee landlordism"; and—thrown in to make good measure—such trifles as over a thousand deaths annually from typhoid fever and industrial accidents. The terrible indictment concluded by painting "the contrast between the prosperity on the one hand of the most prosperous of all the communities of our western civilization" with "the neglect of life, of health, of physical vigor, even of industrial efficiency." Only once during the sessions of the association was there any spontaneous demonstration of approval. That outburst greeted the declaration:

Not by gifts of libraries, galleries, technical schools, and parks, but by the cessation of toil one day in seven and sixteen hours in the twenty-four, by the increase

of wages, by the sparing of lives, by the prevention of accidents, and by raising the standards of domestic life, should the surplus come back to the people of the community in which it is created.

The unusually long programme included three other general sessions devoted respectively to Tariff Revision, the Establishment in the United States of a Central Bank, and the Public Regulation of Security Issues by Corporations. The paper on the Tariff by Prof. H. C. Emery of Yale, was frankly opportunist. Historically, he maintained, the crusade against protection had been a failure so far as it had been founded on the consumer's interest. Free trade, he contended, had prevailed only when urged by the selfish interest of special groups of producers. The moral he deduced was that economists should co-operate with producers who are now anxious to abate duties. Such co-operation on the economists' part need not blind him to the motives of those now urging tariff reduction, nor to the false philosophy of international trade on which the reduction is based. Years back such a proposal would probably have evoked heated repudiation, but nowadays among economists, so far as tariff reform is concerned,

. . . despair itself is mild,

and the discussion wandered on to the relative merits of maximum and minimum tariffs which N. I. Stone of the United States Bureau of Statistics weighed against the system of special reciprocating commercial treaties.

The two leading papers on the establishment of a Central Bank were contributed by Paul M. Warburg of Kuhn, Loeb & Co., New York, and by Horace White, New York. In general they both supported the project. Mr. White advocated it rather on the ground that the jealousy of our country bankers would render an analogue to the Canadian system politically unattainable in this country. To Mr. Warburg the Central Bank has demonstrated its feasibility by virtue of its workings abroad. Of special interest in Mr. Warburg's portrayal of our situation was his insistence on the absence of "modern and readily saleable [commercial] paper which in critical times we can offer to foreign markets" for re-discount. This, with our bond-secured currency and our decentralized reserves, and the unfounded prejudice against anything bearing the name of a "Central Bank" are the *cruxes* of the deplorable state of our banking system. Mr. White did not attempt the detailed construction of a Central Bank as did Mr. Warburg; but his caustic scoring of those who have come to regard "clearing house certificates and rubber stamps" as "desirable *per se*" . . . "as something like Pond's extract, or Peruna, which should always be kept

in the house," was deliciously incisive.

The concluding session was taken up by an able but detailed paper by Prof. C. J. Bullock of Harvard, who argued that legal restrictions imposed in Massachusetts on the issue of securities by transportation companies had driven capital from the State, and arrested the growth of needed railroad facilities in New England generally. The Hon. Milo R. Maltbie of the Public Service Commission of New York, of the First District, broke a lance for the public regulation of security issues by railway companies. Mr. Justice Swayze of the New Jersey Supreme Court outlined the New Jersey law in the premises, and expressed a qualified skepticism as to the efficacy of minute restrictions by statute or administrative commission upon the terms of such issues.

The next annual meeting of the Economists is to be held in New York City, and will be devoted to celebrating the quarter centennial anniversary of the founding of the association at Saratoga in 1885. The incoming president is Prof. Davis R. Dewey, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Prof. T. N. Carver of Harvard University was elected secretary and treasurer.

W. M. D.

THE HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATIONS.

RICHMOND, Va., December 31.

Socially, the annual meetings of the American Historical and American Political Science Associations at Washington and Richmond, December 28-31, were notably successful. The hotel arrangements, permitting the great majority of members to live for the time being under one roof, facilitated the personal conference which forms so large a part of the value of these meetings; for it must be admitted that the obligation to listen to papers and discussions sits less and less heavily upon the members as the years go by. In both cities there was the usual generous provision of private and corporate hospitality, including at Washington a reception at the British Embassy, and at Richmond the courtesy of the New Year's festivities at the Westmoreland. The rich historic interest of Richmond and vicinity made a strong appeal, and an excursion to the University of Virginia at the close of the sessions attracted many.

The programme of papers and conferences, while, as usual, full of variety and information, developed fewer distinctive excellencies than has sometimes been the case, or than the announced titles would in some cases lead one to suppose. Of the presidential addresses, that of Ambassador Bryce before the Political Science Association, on "The Relations of Political Science to History

and to Practice," naturally awakened the greater anticipation. In a way at once luminous and philosophical, Mr. Bryce pointed out the essential limitations of the respective fields of history and political science, and the futility of looking to political science for conclusive guidance in matters of public conduct. Both may, both indeed must, use the accepted scientific methods of observation, comparison, and deduction, but neither can profess to be in the full sense a science. As for the elaborate speculations about the nature of the state with which the literature of political science so greatly abounds, Mr. Bryce had emphatic, though courteous, condemnation, rightly reminding his hearers that facts, not theories, are the things to which they should most attend. The presidential address of Prof. George B. Adams of Yale before the historians, on "History and the Philosophy of History," while in large part to the same effect, called particular attention to the invasion of the field of history by political science, economics, sociology, and other branches of inquiry, with all of which, affording as they do a "common standing-ground for all workers at what are really common tasks," the historian ought to sympathize, while sticking to his own task of ascertaining what actually happened. That the facts thus ascertained tend to prove some theory of history, the historian may well believe, even though imperfect knowledge may prevent a complete verification of the theory. The frank admission that history is, and must always remain, a leading branch of literature, was a refreshing note for a time in which the flood of ill-written monographs portends the worship of another "dismal science" of historical composition.

It is rather a significant commentary on the nature of historical study in this country that so many of the most interesting and valuable papers presented at these meetings should be in the field of European history; and the programme this year was no exception. Prof. C. H. Haskins of Harvard, in an extremely suggestive paper on "Normandy under William the Conqueror," showed how considerable was the political and social development of Normandy before the English conquest, and how markedly certain Norman institutions, especially the registration of land and the system of local magistrates, influenced political development in England. Prof. Oliver H. Richardson of Yale, speaking on "Religious Toleration in Brandenburg-Prussia under the Great Elector, and Its Material Rewards," developed the thesis of religious toleration as both a political and an economic necessity for the growth of the Prussian state; Dr. Ernst Daenell of Kiel discussed the leading ideas of the Hanseatic commercial system; and Prof.

C. W. Colby of McGill appraised with commendation the public life of Chat-ham.

The field of American history was accorded two formal sessions, at one of which the important subject of the use of census data and newspapers as historical material was discussed, while the other presented contrasted criticisms of the Wilderness campaign by Gen. Edward P. Alexander of the Confederate army, Col. William R. Livermore, the well-known writer on military history, and Major Eben Swift of the present General Staff. Besides these formal sessions, five conferences gave opportunity for the consideration of a considerable range of American topics. A conference on geography discussed the influence of the geography of the South Atlantic States on their history; that on history in secondary schools debated, with singular inconclusiveness, the need of modifying the recommendations of the Committee of Seven on that subject. A conference on the problems of State and local historical societies, a subject to which the Historical Association has given, of late, special attention, developed practical suggestions regarding co-operation, the use of photography in archive and historical work, and the conduct of historical exhibitions. Three conferences on research in English, American colonial and Revolutionary, and Southern history, respectively, brought out some of the larger opportunities for investigation in these several fields, with special reference to bibliographical conditions.

Mr. Bryce's injunction to beware of prophecy, served to emphasize the generally practical character of the proceedings of the Political Science Association. A striking though hardly profound paper by Prof. S. B. Leacock of McGill, on the limitations of Federal government, did, indeed, suggest the ultimate breakdown of Federal government, if such problems of uniform and consistent control of labor and capital as have lately arisen continue to press; but, with this exception, the leading papers confined themselves chiefly to the description of phenomena. A complete enumeration of papers and writers would be too extended for inclusion here, but reference should be made to a group of papers on recent constitutional development in New England, the Middle West, Michigan, and Virginia. Prof. J. A. C. Chandler of Richmond College, discussing in this connection the Constitution of Virginia, adopted in 1902, pointed out that under the new system of registration no man could be denied the right to vote who could read and write his application and properly mark his ballot, and that more than one-fourth of those who could have registered under the old Constitution are now disqualified, including in this num-

ber both whites and blacks. Interesting and timely, also, was a group of papers on certain active agencies in the betterment of municipal administration, in which the New York Public Service Commission and Bureau of Municipal Research, the Boston Finance Commission, and the National Municipal League, were described and appraised; and another group on the increase of Federal influence and power in the United States, as illustrated by Federal control of commerce and the growing interference with State activities by the Federal courts. The international law section was distinctly up-to-date, with a paper on aerial navigation in its relation to international law, by Arthur K. Kuhn of New York city. Stranger things might happen than that the nations should before long have to consider, as was facetiously suggested, something akin to a three-mile limit in dealing with airships.

The material and scholarly activities of the two associations show healthy growth. The Historical Association adds to its established undertakings the proposed publication, in uniform annual volumes, of the Justin Winsor and Herbert B. Adams prize essays. The Justin Winsor prize was awarded to Prof. C. E. Carter of Illinois College, for a monograph on "The Influence of Great Britain in the Settlement of the Illinois Country." Both associations meet next year at New York.

PHILOLOGISTS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS AT TORONTO.

TORONTO, December 31.

The joint meeting of the American Philological Association and the Archaeological Institute of America, held December 28-31, at the University of Toronto, was noteworthy in more ways than one. In the first place, the societies had never before met outside of the political boundaries of their country, and the acquaintance of their members with the Canadian universities had been very slight. The meeting did much to quicken mutual recognition and friendship between colleagues working along similar lines on either side of the national lines.

Another noteworthy feature was the admission by the council to affiliation with the Archaeological Institute of America of five newly formed Canadian societies, that give promise of much vigorous life. They will be organized, at their own desire, as a Canadian branch of the Institute, but this provision will not interfere with the essential equality of all the societies of the Institute, Canadian and American, as harmonious members of one great international association. Several newly-born American societies were also admitted;

and the work of the Institute, in both the native and the foreign areas of research, was reported as in most flourishing condition. In connection with the School of American Archeology, an interesting item is the approval of an offer by the territorial government of New Mexico to give for the permanent quarters of the school the old Governor's Palace at Santa Fé, which has been occupied by a long succession of Spanish and American rulers of the surrounding country. A museum of antiquities of the Southwest will be installed within the ancient walls. The school at Jerusalem is also well on the way toward the acquisition of a home of its own in that city. It has amply justified its existence by the execution of much good work, with a surprisingly small expenditure of money. Prof. Robert F. Harper of the University of Chicago is the director for the present year. The school at Athens reports excellent progress with work in that city, as well as at Corinth, and chronicles some striking excavations on a small island off the north coast of Crete, of which much will doubtless be heard hereafter. The school at Rome has published a second volume of papers (see the *Nation* of December 3, 1908, p. 554), and has other important investigations approaching completion.

The united societies telegraphed to the Italian government resolutions of sympathy on the disaster that has befallen the region about which so much of their interest is centred, and promptly started a subscription in behalf of the sufferers. They also joined substantially all the learned societies of the country in formally petitioning Congress for the abolition of the import duty on scientific books published in English. The feeling was, of course, unanimous that the duty is nothing less than a burdensome tax on that portion of the population best deserving assistance instead of hindrance in the struggle after knowledge.

The papers presented before the societies were almost too numerous, but many of them were of high interest and importance. As usual, they covered a wide range of subjects, and a goodly number treated of previously unpublished material. It is impossible even to mention all of those deserving especial commemoration. Three on themes less usually discussed in such meetings may be briefly noted. Prof. J. H. Breasted, recently returned from the Nubian expedition of the University of Chicago—the first in that district since the invention of photography—called attention to the existence in the Temple of Soleb of a connecting link between the basilica-like (higher nave and lower flanking aisles) construction of the well-known temple at Karnak, and the ordinary structure of high pylon and lower walls that is seen in so many Egyptian temples. A. L. Frothingham of Princeton,

N. J., presented arguments in favor of the identification of the porphyry sarcophagus of the Empress Helena, in the Vatican Museum, with the sarcophagus of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius. The communication of Prof. George Hempl of Leland Stanford on his solution of the centuries-old problem of the Etruscan language (and also of the Venetic and Old Sabellian dialects), which had already been flamboyantly exploited in the daily papers throughout the continent, was naturally received with great interest and attention. The stubborn riddle, according to his letter, yielded to him with hardly a struggle. The conflict began one morning, and was ended before bedtime that night. The more slow-moving minds of the assembled philologists did not so readily succumb. The conclusions regarding, for example, the lexicography of the Etruscan language, reached by the patient study of many men for many years, and the comparison of manifold inscriptions, did not seem to deserve summary rejection, until many more than fifty selected inscriptions, mostly brief, had been examined by the new light, and the arguments of other scholars carefully discussed. A fuller publication of Professor Hempl's views will be calmly awaited, and, meanwhile, *Procul, o procul, este profani!*

The most generally interesting session of the societies was the memorial meeting, in honor of Charles Eliot Norton, the first president of the Archaeological Institute. Dr. Edward W. Emerson of Concord, Mass., read a paper analyzing the character of Mr. Norton as man and scholar with perfect acuteness and sympathy, and in exquisite form and manner. He was followed by Prof. William Fenwick Harris of Harvard, who described the service of Mr. Norton to liberal studies in America. The address of Mr. Harris was worthy of the high company it kept.

The two societies meet again in joint session a year hence, at Baltimore, and the Philological Association showed its regard for Prof. Basil L. Gildersleeve of Johns Hopkins by electing him to serve a second time as president—an honor rarely awarded. The Philological Association appointed a large and representative committee to consider further the question brought before it last year of a possible uniform scheme of requirements in Latin for admission to American colleges.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

PRINCETON, N. J., December 30.

Owing to the good attendance and to the admirable management of the local committee of the Princeton faculty, the twenty-sixth meeting of the Modern Language Association held here December 28-30, was one of the most successful in recent years. The majority of

the papers were about equally divided between English and French, whereas German, Italian, and Spanish were represented by two or three apiece. There was a fairly even distribution between literary and philological subjects. But one contribution was strictly linguistic, that of Prof. A. M. Elliott of Johns Hopkins, on the origin of "Chauvin," which was read only in part, owing to the absence of its author. Some papers should have been relegated to the innocuous list of those "read by title": what is confessedly a mere collection of facts, bibliographical or philological, should not be inflicted even upon those whose sense of duty leads them to sit out a complete session. It seems, too, a doubtful practice to present anything not a genuine contribution to knowledge. A restatement of discovered truth or a discussion that throws no new light upon already published work is hardly in place at such a meeting.

The address by the president of the association, Prof. F. M. Warren of Yale, was a plea for the study of mediæval Latin. Though the subject seemed to go beyond the work of the association as defined by the constitution, it was kept within bounds by being shown to be contributory to a fuller and more exact knowledge of the beginnings of French literature. In the valley of the Loire at the close of the tenth century, the period of the early renaissance, many Latin tropes and hymns were written and have been preserved. These furnish a basis for a study of the ideas of the people which come to us in no other form, except the most fragmentary. Thus this Latin is the connecting link between the old literature and the new. A very interesting discussion of French literature at the other extreme of its development was presented by Prof. Brander Matthews of Columbia. He attempted to explain the phenomenon that English readers often find French poetry less satisfying than Italian or German. Three reasons were suggested: First, the extreme clarity of the French tongue left nothing to the imagination, none of that vagueness which to the English consciousness is part of the very emotions themselves; second, the absence of pronounced rhythm in French verse deprives it of that emotional appeal which always goes with the rise and fall of passion from the days of primitive man to the present: the very monotony of the verse strikes the English ear as unappealing; third, words primary in effect to the French often seem secondary to us, since the simple Anglo-Saxon words are almost universally used to present the fundamental emotions: Romance words serve for the secondary emotions.

Two papers, one slightly connected with the romantic movement, the other treating of a direct influence upon this movement, were read respectively by

Dr. R. D. Havens of the University of Rochester and Prof. E. E. Hale, Jr., of Union College. The former showed that along with the influence of Milton's octosyllabics upon the romantic poetry of the eighteenth century went the no less certain influence of his sonnets upon the sonneteers of the century. The sonnet was not written to anything like the same extent as poems of melancholy inspired by "Il Penseroso," but it showed the Miltonic influence where it appeared. It was Miltonic in form, in contrast to the Elizabethan and the Italian, as well as in content, since it was concerned not with love, but with some special event or emotion. The other paper dealt with the influence of Salvator Rosa upon the work of the early romantics. The delight in the wild and the fierce aspects of nature, later called picturesque and romantic, was in marked contrast to the conventional landscape of the century. This was, in part at least, due to Salvator Rosa, as was shown by quotations from Henry McKenzie, Mrs. Radcliffe, Horace Walpole, and Scott, all of whom refer directly to him and show that they were more or less consciously affected by his wild and rugged landscapes.

A paper of general interest was that of Prof. C. von Kleinz of Brown, on the history of the varying attitude of the Europeans, especially Germans and French, towards the United States, from the middle of the eighteenth century to the present time. The Roussellian love for wild nature joined during the American Revolution with the newly arisen democratic fervor and love for the simple life to make America appear as the very embodiment of the highest human aspirations, as seen especially in the work of Chateaubriand. With the waning of romanticism a reaction set in with Lenau, and nothing too violent could be said in detestation of the United States. In the second half of the nineteenth century, however, the civil war and the writings of Emerson revealed to Europe a nobler side of American life, and towards the end of the century the rise of industrialism and the Spanish war compelled attention, to be followed by the close of the century by the critical studies of Bryce, Münsterberg, and—as Prof. A. Schinz of Bryn Mawr pointed out in the discussion that followed the reading of the paper—of De Tocqueville. The fuller knowledge of the country by the peasant class was also indicated by Prof. M. D. Learned, of the University of Pennsylvania, who remarked that several thousands of pensioned soldiers have returned to Germany and have given more exact information of this country than the learned class get from books.

Among the papers more special in character was Percy Long's discussion of the personal allegory in Llyl's "Endimion," a theory which he rejected

as untenable with the exception of the usual identification of Cynthia with Elizabeth. He preferred to treat the leading characters as representatives of the usual *dramatis personae* of Platonic love. Cynthia is heavenly, or Platonic, beauty, Endimion is heavenly love, Telus is earthly beauty, and Corsites is earthly love. Such an interpretation fits in with the plot and the characterization of the play, as all personal identifications fail to do.

In the business meeting of the association it was recommended that a test of the candidate's ability to speak French and German and to interpret them when spoken be required for admission to college. It was also recommended that steps be taken to bring about closer relations between the association and the Carnegie Institution of Washington. A resolution was passed petitioning Congress to remove the duties upon works of art and their reproductions including photographs, upon all books printed in foreign countries, and upon scientific instruments intended for the private use of investigators. Prof. M. D. Learned of the University of Pennsylvania was elected president for the coming year. The other officers are: Vice-presidents, G. Gruener, Yale; E. W. Olmsted, Cornell; and W. A. Neilson, Harvard; secretary, C. H. Grandgent, Harvard; treasurer, W. G. Howard, Harvard; executive council: A. Fortier, Tulane; Charles Harris, Western Reserve; John M. Manly, University of Chicago; C. A. Smith, University of North Carolina; George Hempel, Leland Stanford; Lewis F. Mott, College of the City of New York; and Henry A. Todd, Columbia.

The most enjoyable feature of the whole meeting was undoubtedly the brilliant and witty address of ex-President F. L. Patton before the association in the grill-room of the Princeton Inn on Tuesday evening.

J. W. T.

CHICAGO, December 30.

The fourteenth annual meeting of the Central Division of the Modern Language Association was held in the Northwestern University Building, Chicago, December 28-30, with a large attendance. The admirable address of welcome of Dean T. F. Holgate was followed by the address of the chairman, Prof. Oliver Farrar Emerson, of Western Reserve, a finished and judicious paper, on "The American Scholar and the Modern Languages." The programme contained thirty-nine papers, including eleven read by title, and the range of subjects was gratifyingly broad. As usual, the Germanic side was the most fully represented, with fourteen contributions. Ten were devoted to English, eight to the Romance languages, two to Celtic, and five were of a general character. Both in the Germanic

and the English, there was a marked tendency to deal with modern literature, a large number of the topics being chosen from the nineteenth century. In the main, the discussion of the papers left something to be desired in the matter of definiteness. In the meeting of the English section the discussion of the introductory college course was continued from two years before. In spite of some disagreement in matters of detail, the consensus of opinion appeared to be in favor of a rather full course, combining lectures with class discussion and written work. The chief point of disagreement was in the proportion of time to be devoted to the earlier periods, the suggestions ranging from a study of Old English in translation to a practical ignoring of the writers before Chaucer. In the case of one institution, marked interest in Beowulf and other early works was noted among sophomores. The length of time devoted to the course varied from two hours a week to four. In the German section, the chief attention was paid to methods of teaching the spoken language; and in the French section, in addition to the discussion of methods, a paper was read on the opportunities for the study of Romance languages in Europe and America. The following officers were elected: Chairman, A. G. Canfield of Michigan; executive committee, Otto Heller of Washington University, H. A. Smith of Wisconsin; and C. G. Dunlap of Kansas. C. R. Wilson of Iowa University was reelected secretary for a term of four years. The next meeting will be held at Iowa City.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

A "Bibliography of Henry David Thoreau," compiled by Francis H. Allen, has just been added to the series of bibliographies of American Authors, published by Houghton Mifflin Co. This is a volume of 220 pages printed for the most part on only one side of the sheet, with the frontispiece a portrait of Thoreau not heretofore reproduced. Thoreau's life-work was his journal. His first two books, "A Week" and "Walden," the only ones printed before his death, were for the most part merely selections from the journals. He sent the leaves to the printers, copying over again into a new book the portions he did not use, giving them the title, "Gleanings, or What Time Has Not Reaped of My Journal." After his death his contributions to periodicals, further extended selections from the journal, and his letters were collected by his friends and printed. Finally, in 1906, the journals were printed *in extenso*, as written. Mr. Allen's bibliography comprises Thoreau's books, selections from his writings, articles, and poems first issued in magazines, biographies, books, and periodicals containing biographical or critical matter about Thoreau, and records of sale at auction of the more important items. The work is well done, and is an important addition to the series.

The sale of the third part of Henry W. Poor's library will be held by the Anderson Auction Co. of this city on January 12-14. This section includes a number of choice books. There is one Caxton, an imperfect copy (containing 301 out of 450 leaves) of Higden's "Polychronicon" (1482). This is probably the most common of all Caxtons, but perfect copies are extremely rare. Indeed, Gordon Duff, the latest writer on Caxton and his books, is unable to find a single copy absolutely perfect, with all the five blank leaves. The Poor example, formerly Bishop Hurst's, brought \$1,400 at the sale of his library in 1905. Among other incunabula are the Sermons of Saint Bernard, printed in 1481 by the Brothers of the Common Life at the first press established in Brussels, and a Latin Bible, Koburger, Nuremberg (1477). The sixteenth and seventeenth century English books include Bacon's "Of the Proficiency and Advancement of Learning" (1605), first edition; Bourne's "Regiment for the Sea" (1584); Braithwaite's "Two Lancashire Lovers" (1640); Chaucer's Works (1598 and 1687); Daniel's "First Foure Bookes of the Civile Wars" (1595); Dekker's "Magnificent Entertainment given to King James" (1604); Coryat's "Odombian Banquet" (1611); Selden's "Table Talk" (1689); Drummond's "Poems" (1656); Fraunce's "Lawyer's Logike" (1588), the book from which Shakespeare is supposed to have acquired his legal knowledge; Gower's "Confessione Amantis" (1554); Katherine Philips's "Poems" (1664), first edition; John Taylor's "Workes" (1630), with the engraved title by Cockson; and Waller's "Poems" (1645), one of the four editions issued that year and generally called the "first genuine edition." Of later English authors there are the first edition of Goldsmith's first book, "Memoirs of a Protestant condemned to the Galley of France for his Religion" (1758); the very rare "Poems on the Death of Priscilla Farmer" (1796), by Charles Lloyd, including a poem by Charles Lamb; various first editions, including some of the rarer titles, of Edward Fitzgerald, Andrew Lang, Mathew Arnold, and Oscar Wilde. Of American authors, first editions of Bryant, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Lowell, Poe, Eugene Field, and others are included. A few items of historical Americana are notable: the Italian Cortez, Venice (1524), but, as usual, lacking the plan of the city of Mexico; the first edition of "The Federalist" (1788); Smith's "History of New York" (1757), first edition, in the original sheep; Smith's "History of Canada" (1815), 2 vols., uncut; and the two American editions of Burns' Poems (Philadelphia and New York, 1788). This part also includes many publications of book-clubs and private presses issued in limited editions.

The Merwin Clayton Sales Co. of this city will sell, on January 12 and 13, a collection of books including minor Americana, local histories, Burns's Poems (Berwick, 1801), and first editions of American authors. With this catalogue was sent out a mimeographed price list of the sale of December 15 and 16, and similar price lists of future important sales will be distributed to customers.

Correspondence.

APPEAL FOR THE ITALIAN SUFFERERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Canadian and American membership of the Archaeological Institute of America and of the American Philological Association, in their meeting here, have opened a subscription for the relief of the Italian sufferers; and they beg all persons whose lives have been enriched by the memories of the Ionian Sea, to join with them. Checks may be sent to Prof. Frank Gardner Moore, secretary, Trinity College, Hartford, Conn. The money will be forwarded, through Director Jesse Benedict Carter, of the American School in Rome, to the Italian government.

ELMER TRUESDELL MERRILL,
FRANK GARDNER MOORE,
C. U. CLARK,

Committee.

Toronto, Ontario, December 30.

DRAMATIC MONOLOGUE FOR "HAMLET."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The flood of discussion concerning "Hamlet" seems to indicate that this is the least clear of Shakespeare's dramas; but no one, I believe, has pointed out that the main reason for its obscurity is the unsuitness of the pure drama as a literary form for the treatment of such a subject. Hamlet is a problematic character. His motives, his real purposes, are so puzzling as to lead to important differences of opinion among even the most noted critics. Not even to Horatio can he unb burden himself fully. And Shakespeare admits the inadequacy of his exposition of Hamlet's personality by resorting, in four notable instances, to that clumsy device, the soliloquy. In no other play does he find himself driven to so many lines addressed merely to vacancy; and this may therefore fairly be regarded as tantamount to a confession of defeat. Shakespeare probably realized that, fascinating as he had made the problem, he had not indicated any clear solution. And this because in the pure drama it was impossible for him to explain so subtle and complex a character.

By a grim irony of fate it was reserved for a man with an almost hopeless reputation for obscurity to discover the proper literary form for the analysis of a problematic character. Browning, in his dramatic monologues, is much clearer than Shakespeare in "Hamlet." After reading Caponsacchi's luminous monologue in "The Ring and the Book," it is not necessary to ask, What manner of man is this? Though the accusations of enemies had seemed to prove him to be a lascivious hypocrite, this impression is eradicated by his speech before the court—a speech the effect of which upon the judges is admirably indicated by Browning—and the devotion, the idealism, of this "soldier-saint" become incontestable.

Now turn back to Hamlet. Had he survived the arrest of "that fell sergeant, Death," long enough to defend himself by a speech to the populace, by whom Shakespeare assures us he was so beloved, would there have been any danger of his leaving

"a wounded name" behind him? Does not Shakespeare's device of making Hamlet prevent Horatio from committing suicide, in order that Horatio may render clear to the king's subjects the true course of events, prove that a dramatic monologue was necessary in such a case? But did even Horatio know his friend well enough to take the task of explanation from his shoulders? The spiritual isolation of Hamlet, his apparent inability to find any one who can understand him to the full, is the source of much of the pathos in the play. The inadequacy of Ophelia is felt almost at the outset. Horatio is the recipient of confidences; but to him also the secret of Hamlet's wonderful personality—perhaps closely akin to Shakespeare's own—is "within the centre hid." Not only does this hero's soul pass to the "undiscovered country" at his tragic death, but that soul is during his whole life an undiscovered country to both friends and enemies. Claudius comes nearest to discovering him at one point; yet how little does even that smooth villain understand! Only Hamlet could make Hamlet clear; and by missing the monologue form Shakespeare has failed to make this solution possible.

One may readily admit that it is solely from the point of view of clearness that "Hamlet" would have been improved by a transfer to the new literary form suggested. Doubtless the result of such an experiment would have been less interesting, less complex in its study of human life, and would not have given Shakespeare an opportunity to show his consummate skill in painting a large canvas. It was Browning's inability to handle a great number of characters and to develop an action patiently and flawlessly from inception to crisis which led him to adopt the dramatic monologue; for it was only after several failures in the pure drama that he found himself, in the alternative form. But his success in this new form is admitted even by the most rabid Tennysonian. How infinitely tantalizing, then, are the possibilities opened to us when we fancy the results, had Browning made a new Hamlet.

HARRY T. BAKER.

Beloit College, Wis., December 23.

"FOUGHT TO A FRAZZLE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the interesting and extremely suggestive volume, by Eliza Frances Andrews, recently published and entitled, "The War-Time Journal of a Georgia Girl," is the following (p. 133):

I might take more credit to myself for keeping Lent, if I had anything to wear, but my one new dress isn't made up yet, and everything else I have is too frazzled out to wear.

This is a diary entry of April 5, 1865. Gen. Gordon, of Georgia, used his expression, well-known to all students of our Civil War literature, and which presumably suggested the phrase to President Roosevelt—"Tell Gen. Lee that my corps is fought to a frazzle"—about the tenth of the same month, or within a week of the date of Miss Andrews's diary record.

A few lines further on, Miss Andrews records that her sister's "hair that she lost last fall, from typhoid fever, has grown out curly, and her head is frizzled beautifully all over." The last term is,

of course, familiar as connected with certain methods both of cooking, and of dressing the hair. The companion word, "frazzle," it is apparent, was a term in common use with Southern women in connection with their dress, and was somewhat equivalent to "frayed out."

The noticeable thing now, however, is this example-of-record of the use of the word "frazzle" in its proper colloquial sense by a girl in Georgia almost at the very time Gen. Gordon was using it in Virginia in connection with his battle-worn army corps.

C. F. A.

Boston, January 4.

[The "New English Dictionary" describes "frazzle" as dialectic, and used in the United States. It gives the following citations, the first of which is forty years earlier than that quoted by our correspondent:

Robert Forby, "The Vocabulary of East Anglia": *Frazzle*, to unravel or rend cloth. *Frazlings*, the threads of cloth torn or unravelled.

1893. *American Missionary*: One's garments get frazzled in the grass; one's mind and body and spiritual sense sometimes become frazzled, torn to pieces, good for nothing.

1894. *Columbus (Ohio) Dispatch*, January 2: Two years ago his nerves were worn to a frazzle over an attempt made to levy a tax.

1895. *Nebraska State Journal*, June 23: Every one believed that Thomas would plant the frazzled banner of the distillers in its place.—ED. NATION.]

TARIFF AND REVENUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "The belated diversion the high tariff people are trying to make, in their anxiety about the revenue," by pointing to the existing deficit, according to your editorial of December 24, recalls the fact that the McKinley act of 1890 was entitled "An Act to Reduce the Revenue and for Other Purposes." That law was the high tariff response to the demand of Mr. Cleveland's message of December, 1891, for a reduction of duties because of the then increasing surplus under the much lower tariff of the law of 1883. The remedy then administered by protectionism for the condition which then confronted the country was to raise the duties so as to make them prohibitory, and so reduce the revenue, resulting from the act of 1883. The remedy now, when a deficit, instead of a surplus confronts us, would seem to be, as you suggest, to reduce the present duties; and this was the remedy prescribed by the high tariff doctors of 1890.

CHARLES B. WILBY.

Cincinnati, December 30.

THE HETCH HETCHY VALLEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* and its readers can, by a prompt appeal to Congress, assist in the effort to preserve for the public one of the most remarkable of our national parks. I refer to the one embracing Hetch Hetchy valley and its watershed, in California. This, with the neighboring Yosemite, probably has no superior for grandeur of natural scenery. But a united and determined effort is now being made to batter down the protection of the national park boundaries, to the end that its water re-

sources may be commercially utilized. The farmers on the lowlands claim a large part of the flow for irrigation, and can, if they will, impound it without entering the park; individuals and corporations wish to develop electric power plants; but San Francisco leads the fight by demanding that Hetch Hetchy be converted into a reservoir to supply her with water.

San Francisco exerted great pressure upon the Secretary of the Interior, who yielded, in moment of weakness. He granted what was asked, under some limitations; but these limitations are not regarded seriously by the San Francisco promoters, who confidently intend to eliminate all restrictions. If San Francisco had no other source of water supply she would be justified in taking this course; but this is only one of a dozen sources that are available, and of all these, this is the only one that is important to protect, because of its remarkable scenic value. The Sierra pours a vast flood upon the great valleys of central California, and gives ample opportunity for enormous development for municipal supply, for irrigation, and for electrical power.

Hetch Hetchy is not well known, as yet, even in California, as it has been somewhat difficult of access. Its walls rise some 3,000 feet. The towering granite is marked by several waterfalls of great height and remarkable beauty. Its floor is comparatively level, having a meadow at the lower end, and the upper covered with great ferns. It is shaded by a primeval forest, among which are giant pines and firs, 200 feet high. The Tuolumne River flows clear and placid through the middle of the valley, with the beauty of an emerald. The floor of the valley has an elevation of some 3,000 feet; but at its head the cañon of the river rises rapidly between tremendous granite walls, which at one point extend 5,000 feet above the stream, that races and roars along its bed in a continuous series of rapids and waterfalls. This cañon can be made accessible to the public by trails. Some twenty miles above the Hetch Hetchy the cañon terminates and the river flows quietly through the Tuolumne meadows, which are some ten miles long, and vary from one to two miles in width. The meadows are surrounded by mountains having peaks covered with perpetual snow. In this neighborhood are Mt. Dana, Mt. Ritter, and Mt. Lyell, the two latter rising above 13,000 feet, and each bearing small glaciers. The entire region is finely timbered, up to the snow line, and intersected by many beautiful streams. Here and there are found the little Alpine meadows, grass-carpeted and spangled with flowers, which are the gems of the high Sierra.

This wonderful region was explored by John Muir and his eloquent pen has done much to make it known. To him is due the chief credit of having the best of it included within a national park, presumably safe from invasion for all time. Indeed, had it not been so preserved for the public, San Francisco would have had no opportunity to acquire it, as it would have been appropriated long since for other purposes. And if San Francisco succeeds in ousting the public from the rights which have been reserved for all, she eventually will demand the exclusion of tourist and camper from the entire drainage to prevent contamination of the water supply; just as

armed guards now expel intruders on the drainage of its present supply.

This region is part of the rich heritage of the older States of the Union, as well as of California. They should help to preserve it, by demanding action on the part of their representatives in Congress. There is urgent need for such support, for the controlling Californian sentiment is deplorably avaricious and utilitarian. The chief promoters of the San Francisco water scheme are men who represent a high average of the ordinary level of culture here, and who are active generally in promoting what they believe to be the best interests of the public. They denounce their opponents in this matter as "scenery cranks." Their course regarding Hetch Hetchy gives point and force to a recent characterization in the British Parliament, when a matter under debate was disposed of with the remark that the measure was unworthy of cultivated England and might have emanated from one of the semi-civilized States of Western America.

This matter has nothing to do with the national policy regarding forest reserves. It relates exclusively to the policy of protecting a few localities which possess such remarkable natural attributes as justify their being set apart as national parks.

GEORGE EDWARDS.

Berkeley, Cal., December 27.

THE PICTURE OF HOMER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: With reference to Amasa M. Eaton's letter about a picture of Homer, in your issue of December 24, it is possible that his engraving was taken from the picture described by André Beaunier, and that Beaunier's description is correct, even though the poet's left hand rests on the boy's shoulder in the one and the right in the other, while the right arm is raised to heaven in the painting and the left in the engraving. Massard most likely engraved directly from Girard's painting and not from its reflection in a looking glass, so that when the proof was taken from the plate, what was left in the painting was right on the impression, and vice versa. Nearly all, if not all, the old engravers worked in this way. Marc Antonio Raimondi so copied Raphael's drawings. Rembrandt, Whistler, and Seymour Hayden in their etchings invariably reversed what the French call the *orientation*, and Pennell does so to-day.

B. P. S.

New York, January 1.

INDIAN STATISTICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me a little space to correct a misapprehension which may arise among readers not familiar with Indian statistics from a perusal of your article of November 19, upon the New India? The writer of that article appears to hold the view that India is getting poorer, and that official statistics confirm this melancholy opinion. This is not the case; the statement that the Hindu earned four cents a day in 1850 and three cents a day in 1882, and less than two cents in 1900, which he quotes with approval, is a conjecture of the late Mr. William Digby for which he alone is responsible and which every scien-

tific statistician has repudiated. The estimate for 1850 does not profess to be official and is a singularly wild conjecture, for the number of people then living in India is not known, the first census having been taken more than twenty years later. As even such elementary statistics as are recorded in a census did not exist in 1850, it is obvious that the materials for such a delicate calculation as the wealth per head of the population are absolutely wanting. Even now that the statistical material is much enlarged, no reasonable man can feel any confidence in these hazardous calculations which profess to estimate the wealth per head to a penny or a fraction of a penny. We do not know even approximately what the annual production of wealth in India may be, nor have we yet any statistics upon which to estimate it. We have, however, since 1872 (the year of the first census of British India), a few figures upon which we can rely with confidence and they certainly do not bear out the theory that India is getting poorer. We have, for instance, the figures for imports and the figures for population. Here they are:

	Rupees.	Rupees.
Year.	Imports.	Population.
1872.....	364,000,000	185,000,000
1907.....	1,725,000,000	237,000,000

The rupee in 1872 was worth one shilling and eleven pence; in 1907 one shilling and four pence, so that imports in 1872 were worth 92 cents per head, and in 1907, \$2.52 per head.

The reason why it is difficult to estimate the wealth annually produced in India is that India is a land of small holdings, and there are many petty by-products on a small farm which escape the statistician, but which add materially to the comfort of the farmer's family. A patch of vegetables, a goat, and a few hens will very appreciably contribute to the health of the children, but they will elude the most vigilant statistician. As a matter of fact, the government of India does not include even the value of the straw in its estimate of the farmer's income, when imposing taxation, and therefore this not unimportant by-product of husbandry (which in India serves as cattle fodder) escapes enumeration. The truth is that both the profits and the expenses of the small farmer are made up of such petty items that they baffle the economist who would express them quantitatively. An Indian proverb well sums up the situation: "If the cost of cultivation be counted up in money, not even the goad will remain." Forgetting this, industrious statisticians like Mr. Digby pore over Blue Books and come to the astounding conclusion that, owing to the pressure of the land tax, the Indian farmer makes nothing out of the cultivation of his holding or works it at a loss. If statistics do indeed prove this, so much the worse for the statistics. The Indian peasant certainly does not think this is the case, for he will buy land, on which he will have to pay the tax, at as high a rate in some places as 1,000 rupees (\$330) an acre. The Indian peasant may be uneducated, but he is shrewd enough not to pay four or five thousand rupees in cash for the privilege of making a loss. That something more than a bare living is to be made from a small holding in India,

after paying the government land tax, is further shown by the practice of subletting which prevails extensively. In Madras, for instance, where the farmers usually hold direct from the state, it is common to find the holding sublet to an under tenant upon the metayer principle; the farmer pays the land tax and receives from the sub-tenant one-half, two-thirds, and even sometimes three-quarters of the produce. The practice of subletting is to be regretted, but at least it reduces most of Mr. Digby's calculations to so much waste paper.

T. MORISON.

Ashleigh, Weybridge, England, December 20.

[It may be worth while to recall that the point of our article was to show the existence of widespread discontent in India and some of the reasons for it. Our correspondent's statistics as to imports, if offered as proof of the prosperity of the Indian peasant, have some of the defects which he attributes to Mr. Digby's calculations. The figures themselves may be trustworthy, but to average them over the entire population of India may be misleading. The total of imports includes a large amount of supplies for the construction and maintenance of public improvements, for the English officials and for the rest of the 5,000,000 "persons of independent means" discovered by the census takers of 1901.—ED. NATION.]

the artist and the poet, nor have they stamped themselves with any great vividness on the popular fancy, the English-speaking peoples in particular being surprisingly ill-acquainted with them. The unprejudiced cannot but think this a matter for regret, since if these tales are not so alluring as some national legends, they are superior to most in moral elevation and human feeling. The present volume includes, as well as the myths of Asgard, the *Frithiof Saga*, and most of the adventures of the *Volsungs*. It is illustrated with reproductions of various already existing works of art, and has two indices.

French writers have given a good deal of attention in recent years to the feminine side of the house of Bonaparte. Whether in pursuance of the anthropological dictum, *cherches la mère*, or from sheer interest in a fine old crusted character, the study of Letizia Bonaparte is fully worth while; and her daughters, their appearance, their ideas, and their adventures, transcend life and glow with the enchanting unreality of the creations of Dumas. In English they have been comparatively neglected, and here H. Noel-Williams has found an excellent opportunity for his art. His book "The Women Bonapartes" (Charles Scribner's Sons) makes no claim to contribute to the world's knowledge, but the literature of the subject has been thoroughly and intelligently used; selection has been happily made; and the mass of material has been handled lightly, with a remarkable power of condensation. Even thus, the narrative could hardly have been contained in its two volumes, but for the virtual omission of Napoleon. Of course, he is felt on every page, as the very condition of existence for his family; he is to the story what Egdon Heath is to "The Return of the Native"; his relatives watch him as a sailor watches the weather; but his own career comes before us only as it is reflected in Pauline's allowance, in Murat's infatuation, and in the cheese-parings of Madame Mère.

The title and cover of W. R. H. Trowbridge's "Seven Splendid Sinners" (Brentano's) are worse than its contents. The Duchesse de Châteauroux, the Duchess of Kendal, Catherine II of Russia, Elizabeth Chudleigh, to name the first four of the seven, are not savory subjects for biography, but Mr. Trowbridge writes with sufficient decorum, and partly justifies his choice by the historical or social significance of his subjects. The life of Elizabeth Chudleigh, the notorious Duchess of Kingston, is, perhaps, the most interesting of the seven, and here Mr. Trowbridge has drawn on a little-read source as well as Walpole's letters and the other familiar memoirs of the day. Miss Chudleigh was a characteristic phenomenon of Georgian society. In his life of the Duchess of Kendal, Mr. Trowbridge gives the usual account of Lady Darlington's relation to George I, but in his preface he retracts all this and accepts her innocence in accordance with the notes of Graf Kilmansegg's recent "Briefe des Herzogs Ernest August zu Braunschweig-Lüneburg." The editor of those letters has both national and family reasons for attempting to whitewash Lady Darlington and to refine the gross portraits of the first Brunswicks left by British writers. We can only say that an examination of his notes does not

Notes.

In view of the Lincoln centennial, Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. have reissued in their Astor Edition a book first published by their firm in 1865: "Abraham Lincoln: Tributes from His Associates, Reminiscences of Soldiers, Statesmen, and Citizens." The book contains articles by George William Curtis, W. H. Herndon, Gen. Howard, and others.

The "Autobiography of Captain Zachary G. Lamson" (Boston: W. B. Clarke Co.) gives all too briefly some of the incidents of an active and honorable career in the merchant service between the years 1797 and 1814. Capt. Lamson's courage and capacity entitled him to unqualified success, but ill fortune seems to have dogged him at every turn. His story is extremely interesting. It is especially valuable in the many side lights it throws upon nautical matters during the time of the Napoleonic struggle. It is edited by O. T. Howe, who gives a painstaking and accurate account of the state of the American mercantile marine at that period and of the international complications which beset our efforts to carry on trade under the prohibitory conditions of Napoleon's Berlin and Milan decrees on the one side and the British Orders in Council on the other. Few books of its size, if any, contain so much in these respects that is worthy of reading and preserving.

R. A. Guerber's "Myths of the Norsemen" (London: Harrap & Co.) is an agreeable reminder of a branch of legend that has been overmuch neglected. Owing, perhaps, to a certain brutality, a certain deficiency in grace, these Teutonic stories have rarely been chosen for treatment by

convince us that the English sources are substantially false.

The time has not yet come for a critical study of the period and the frame of mind we call "Victorian." We are still too near it and become, in discussing its chief manifestations, either too angry, or too reverential. Fitzgerald Molloy ("Victoria Regina," Dodd, Mead & Co.) seems to have perceived this truth. At any rate, he makes no attempt at criticism. He skates serenely on the thin ice of the conventional view, hurts nobody's feelings, regards with gentlemanly regret the events of '48, takes everybody seriously except Macaulay and Carlyle, and does his best to cast a glamour over the stubborn little figure of his protagonist. The book ends with the death of the Prince Consort in 1862.

"India: Its Life and Thought," by John P. Jones, D.D. (The Macmillan Co.), is the outcome of a thirty years' experience in this land, whose inhabitants are the least understood and the most easily misunderstood of all men by the people of the West. To all who desire to learn something of the conditions and characteristics of their life and thought, it will prove exceedingly helpful. Beginning with a lucid account of the present prevailing unrest, its cause, and remedy, Dr. Jones explains at some length the system of caste, showing how it degrades manual labor, opposes commerce, and is a deadly foe to nationality and individualism. Not only so, but by its laws, fifty millions of people, the outcasts, are not permitted to enter any temples and have no right to receive whatever comforts religion may confer. An exposition of the principal religious beliefs and ideals, together with the reforms now in progress, occupies the larger part of the volume, which closes with a chapter on Christianity in India. Though the dark shadows prevail, yet there are many bright gleams and justice is paid to the redeeming traits in the Hindu character and literature. The make-up of the book is unusually good and its attractiveness is increased by sixteen full-page illustrations.

An instructive story of the ups and downs in the methods of secondary education is found in the recent *Festschrift*, edited by R. Büttner, under the title, "Geschichte des fürstlichen Gymnasiums Rutheneum zu Gera," and issued on the occasion of the three hundredth anniversary of this famous school (Gera: H. Kanitz), is really a history of German educational ideals *in petto* during these three centuries. The book is illustrated.

The political training and education of the masses as a burning need of the times is the theme of the new work of P. Rühlmann, in his new volume, "Politische Bildung; Ihr Wesen und Ihre Bedeutung eine Grundfrage unseres öffentlichen Lebens" (Leipzig: Quelle & Meyer).

"Das nächste Geschlecht, ein Buch zur Selbsterziehung für Eltern: Das sexuell Problem in der Kindererziehung" (Giesen: Alfred Töpelmann), by Hans Wegener, author of "Wir jungen Männer," is like many other discussions that come from positivistic and monistic circles, devoted to the interests of the coming generation. Its chief purpose is to prepare young people for rational parentage. The popularity of this and kindred works in Germany can be seen from the fact that, although "Wir

jungen Männer" is only recently published, 55,000 copies have been printed and the first edition of the present work is 20,000.

"Deutsche Reiter in Südwest: Selbsterlebnisse aus den Kämpfen in Deutsch-Südwestafrika, nach persönlichen Berichten," edited by Gen. F. F. von Dincklage-Campe, issued with many illustrations in twenty parts (Berlin: Deutsches Verlagshaus Bong & Co.), is a unique addition to colonial literature. It is a collection, from many sources, of adventures and experiences of German colonists in Southwestern Africa. The contents are exceedingly varied, touching problems of missions, commerce, and culture, although naturally emphasizing military events.

"Am Webstuhl der Zeit: Ein Jahrbuch," prepared by Emil Freiherr von Grothuss (Stuttgart: Greiner & Pfeiffer), is the second issue of an exceptionally good annual, the purpose of which is chiefly to furnish an intelligent idea of the progress of thought and life during the past twelve-month in every department of activity. The different parts are written by specialists, who, in some cases, however, do not report with perfect objectivity, but rather plead for special scientific and philosophical ideas that are still *sub judice*.

Eduard von der Hellen, in his recently issued fifth volume of "Goethes Briefe: Ausgewählt und in chronologischer Folge mit Anmerkungen" (Stuttgart: Cotta), which contains letters from 1807-1818, is approaching the close of this work. The next volume will be the last.

Students of the Nibelungenlied and the literature that has grown up about it will welcome Theodor Abeling's "Das Nibelungenlied und seine Literatur," which contains in its 257 pages a complete bibliography and four essays on the subject (Leipzig: Eduard Avenarius).

The G. Grote'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung of Berlin is just issuing a new work in two volumes, "Jesus und die neutestamentlichen Schriftsteller," by the veteran Prof. Adolf Hausrath; the first, of 712 pages, has appeared, the second is promised early in 1909. The author, in his introduction, declares that this work is not intended to be controversial, but for reading and study. Not the critical but the historical and literary point of view determine the character of the contents, which are intended largely for teachers, preachers, and careful students in general. The author has sought to interpret the contents of the New Testament writings, and especially the teachings of Jesus, in the light of the historical background. Due attention is given to modern problems and perplexities.

Wilhelm Ernst, in his "Aufgabe und Arbeitsmethode der Apologetik für die Gegenwart" (Berlin: Trowitzsch & Sohn), undertakes, within a narrow compass, to adjust the problems and perplexities of apologetics to the thought of the times. The author, who evinces a good deal of independent thought, and writes suggestively, is evidently anxious to be fair to both sides, the conservative and the advanced.

The posthumous works of the independent Catholic theologian of Würzburg, Dr. Hermann Schell, have just been issued (Paderborn: Ferdinand Schoeningh) in a solid volume of more than seven hundred pages entitled "Kleinere Schriften." This vol-

ume, edited by Dr. Karl Hennemann, "mit kirchlicher Druckerlaubnis," consists of essays, addresses, sermons, and the like, all with the characteristic features of Schell's progressiveness of thought. The same house has also issued lately a brochure entitled "Hermann Schell über die soziale Frage," von W. Hohoff.

Michel Épuy has just published the "Œuvres choisies de Rudyard Kipling," with preface, critical analysis, and a portrait of Kipling.

The London *Times* of December 17 summarizes the annual report on the operation of the Rhodes scholarship system, issued December 16:

The results of the year's examinations are given in detail. In the final honor schools there were 4 first, 19 second, 15 third, and 3 fourth classes gained. Of the firsts, 3 were gained by Americans, and 1 by a colonial scholar. Three scholars took the B.Litt. degree, 3 the B.Sc., and 3 the B.C.L. The School of Economics appears to attract the German scholar, 2 of whom took the diploma "with distinction." Failures as well as successes are recorded. Two German, 3 colonial, and 4 American scholars failed to pass the examinations which they attempted. The statement made at the Colonial Institute by Professor Egerton, but not referred to in this report, that only one Rhodes scholar out of the whole body was reading for a pass degree, shows at least that the failures are incurred in facing the more severe tests of the university. The All Souls fellowship [to which a Canadian, Mr. Archibald, was elected] was the most striking success achieved during the year, but in addition to this there were gained a Burdett-Coutts scholarship in natural science, a senior demyship at Magdalene, the Beit prize and Brassey scholarship in colonial history, the Passmore Edwards scholarship in classes and English, and a geographical scholarship.

The account in the *Times* closes with this paragraph:

Most satisfactory of all, perhaps, to those who watch the working out of the idea of Cecil Rhodes, is the tribute paid by Sir William Anson in the discussion on Professor Egerton's paper last week in the Royal Colonial Institute, when he said it was felt that the Rhodes scholars had as a whole brought to the university a spirit of earnest work, and were doing Oxford good. The approval of his alma mater, and the form in which it is thus given, is what the founder himself would have most valued.

The Turkish Division of the Bosnian and Herzegovinian Institute for the Investigation of the Balkans, in Sarajevo, has recently received valuable additions to its collection—a large number of archives coming from old Turkish and Bosnian noble families, together with 160 copies of Arabic, Persian, and Turkish manuscripts, which begin with the year 549 of the Hegira.

J. P. Gordy, professor of the history of education in New York University, died by his own hand, December 31, at the age of fifty-seven. Grief for the loss of an only daughter, who had just died of pneumonia, was apparently the cause of his act. Professor Gordy had written largely on educational and historical topics, including "The Growth and Development of the Normal School Idea in the United States," "Text-Book on Psychology," "History of Political Parties in the United States," and "A Liberal Education in the Elementary School."

Mary Evelyn Moore Davis ("Mollie E. Davis") died in New Orleans January 1 at the age of fifty-six. Her published works include "Minding the Gap," and Other

Poems," "In War Times at La Rose Blanche," "Under the Man-Fig," "An Elephant's Track, and Other Stories," "Under Six Flags," "Wire Cutters," "The Queen's Garden," and "Jacopetta."

Emile Honoré Cazelles has died at Paris at the age of seventy-seven. He was best known for his spreading the knowledge of English philosophy in France, and his published works include translations of many volumes of John Stuart Mill, Herbert Spencer, Bentham, and Grote.

THREE AMERICAN LEADERS.

John C. Calhoun. By Gaillard Hunt. Pp. 335. [The American Crisis Biographies.] Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. \$1.25 net.

Life of Stephen A. Douglas. By William Gardner. Pp. 239. Boston: Roxburgh Press. \$1.50.

Robert E. Lee, the Southerner. By Thomas Nelson Page. Pp. 312. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.25 net.

Persons who a generation ago read Von Holst's highly metaphysical "Calhoun" will naturally wonder how Mr. Hunt's biography of the great South Carolinian differs from it. Von Holst knew so few personal details of Calhoun's life that, with all his imagination, he could not, he said, fancy himself walking or chatting familiarly with the nullifier, as he might with Webster or Clay. He dealt with his hero under broad, impersonal chapter-heads, which made Calhoun seem like an extraction from history. The Calhoun of Hunt's narrative, on the other hand, is a product of personal, local, sectional, and national details. As we are early made familiar with Calhoun's antecedents and traits and the shifting political influences to which he was exposed, we see no mystery in his change from nationalist to sectionalist. During the nullification movement, when personal minutiae, social conditions, and local colors are important, Hunt is ample, vivid, and instructive. During the later period—when Calhoun attacks this, defends that, and demands something else, all in support of his theories of State rights, which were designed to shield, then strengthen, and then expand the interests on which Southern society rested—Von Holst became more and more psychological, yet an irresistible as a geometric demonstration. Mr. Hunt, however, having already shown us Calhoun and the forces that affected him, does not always point out the significance of new factors during the last two decades of Calhoun's life, when he was a national leader. Von Holst is vastly superior in his philosophical grasp, but Hunt is unrivaled in description and literary flavor. It is no slight mutual compliment that two biographers, with altogether different antecedents and tastes, writing a quarter of a cen-

tury apart, and working in historical materials that were only partly the same, should reach similar conclusions. This general agreement is not much disturbed by the fact that Hunt looking up to Calhoun from a commonwealth calls him a statesman, while Von Holst looking down to Calhoun from the nation is unwilling to grant quite so much.

David Franklin Houston, in his scholarly and independent "Study of Nullification in South Carolina," says (p. 72) that not Calhoun, but Robert J. Turnbull was the father of nullification: "Only the name is wanting." Mr. Hunt, however, bluntly asserts (p. 78) that Turnbull "never presented his readers with a sight of the theory of the right of nullification. Apparently he knew nothing of it or thought nothing of it." But let us give Turnbull and Calhoun each his due. Turnbull, prior to 1828, was an agitator, a political recruiting officer, but he went far enough to describe the general plan ("Crisis," pp. 152, 163): "Resistance, and *firm resistance*, is the only course to preserve the Federal Constitution in its pristine purity, and with it, the hopes of freedom." Again, "Let South Carolina act for herself, and the other States for themselves." He thought that the Legislature could express the sovereignty of the State. His expectation was that such resistance would suffice to annul the objectionable features of the tariff, "perhaps" without even "calling out the militia." Then how did Calhoun, who, until the eleventh hour was a nationalist, become leader of the sectionalists? The "tariff of abominations" (1828) made it certain that South Carolina would resist. This certainty called for a leader who understood the requirements of a campaign against the Federal government, which Turnbull did not. Calhoun, the Vice-President and new convert, was consulted and promptly wrote the "Exposition of 1828," which was a protest, a pronunciamento, and a programme, all in one. The general aim of single-State resistance within the Union, on the basis of State sovereignty, was still unchanged. Hence it is equally evident that Turnbull antedated Calhoun in demanding the substance of what was now called nullification, and that Calhoun preceded Turnbull in elaborating the details for argument and action.

Politicians, when viewed historically, are, like fordable streams, unimpressive, whereas statesmen, like navigable rivers, have a certain dignity and command respect. It is not the least of the virtues of Mr. Gardner's biographical sketch—for such it is rather than a "life"—that he treats Douglas as a politician. Any one who has closely studied Douglas's career will find hardly a new fact or thought or phrase, and at first he will wonder why the book was

written. But the reader will soon discover that he is following a political sketch that is a model for clear, concise, frank expression, and is a remarkable example of a successful combination of the usually incompatible qualities of sympathy and criticism. Here are a few sentences from a characterization of Douglas that show the distinctness of the lines in this excellent biographical etching:

He was a practical man of action, whose course was generally guided by the accidental circumstances of the hour, rather than by fixed principles. . . . He entered the great political arena with little of either mental or moral culture. . . . His real sin was that he did not rise above the ethics of the times; that he remained deaf as an adder to the voices of the great reformers who sought to regenerate the age, and who were compelled to grapple with him in deadly struggle before they could gain footing on the stage. . . . While his ethics has fared hard, his mental gifts have been over-estimated. The availability of all his resources, his overwhelming energy and marvellous efficiency among men of intellect, gave rise to the impression that still survives that he was a man of original genius. But of all his numerous speeches, heard or read by millions, not a sentence had enough vitality to survive even one generation.

The ideals, methods, and temperament of the genuine historian or biographer are very different from those of the story-teller, who deals in colors, sentiments, impulses, contrasts, exaggerations, and almost anything that will help him to his desired climax. In fiction, it usually suffices if there is verisimilitude or plausibility. Every tradition, every common belief, every positive statement may be taken as good material to be wrought with, if it harmonize with the general setting. As a story-teller, Thomas Nelson Page compels our admiration. With the best of intentions he has written a biography of General Lee that would be admirable if it might be judged by the canons of fiction. Being convinced of the accuracy of traditions and reports, he accepts them without a thought of careful investigation. Accordingly he believes that secession was a Constitutional right; that Virginia was a thoroughly loyal and Union-loving State, and her convention of 1861 was almost unanimously Unionist, until the National Government by usurpations and aggressions drove the convention into secession. Lee's well-known declaration that secession would be revolution, is quoted incidentally, but not his opinion, written three days after Virginia had passed her ordinance: "The whole South is in a state of revolution, to which Virginia, after a long struggle, has been drawn." It is nothing that those opinions represent the historical fact, for tradition tells a different story.

We recall no influential military critic who, within a decade or two, has ques-

tioned that Lee was great in attack, all but invincible in defence, and about equally audacious and successful in both strategy and tactics. Then, too, Lee's moral, like his military, qualities are now, thanks to Charles Francis Adams's fascinating and philosophical address, quite generally admired. But Mr. Page imagines Lee assailed, depreciated, sinned against, and heroically rushes to a defence that is carrying coals to Newcastle. Find a first-class villain, a traitor, even, and your hero becomes almost superhuman. It will be remembered that after Lee's death, when Longstreet had affiliated with the Republican party, the Rev. Dr. William Nelson Pendleton, a West Pointer and a clergyman, who had been Lee's chief of artillery, made a very sensational public accusation, that on the evening of the first day's fight at Gettysburg, Lee ordered Longstreet to make a flank attack on the Federal left wing early the next morning; that Longstreet inexplicably delayed and disobeyed Lee's order, and by various acts, delays, or failures to act then and later wilfully caused the battle of Gettysburg, and consequently the whole struggle, to be lost by the Confederates. Both Lee's and Pendleton's official reports on Gettysburg belie the gravamen of the charge, and Longstreet continued to be Lee's favorite. Yet to thousands, this story was balm for old but lasting disappointments. Any one could easily gain much popularity in the South by attacking Longstreet, whom no one cared to defend. Longstreet's final and thorough answer, "Lee and Longstreet at High Tide" (see the *Nation*, January 19, 1905, pp. 53-55), was published soon after his death, and more recently General Alexander's "Military Memoirs of a Confederate" (see the *Nation* of June 13, 1907, p. 542), refuted all the charges that were grave. Rank, fierce, and unchristian injustice to a gallant brother officer, who was not, indeed, without his faults, was supposed to have received its quietus. Nevertheless, Mr. Page acts as if the accusations against Longstreet had never been questioned, although on other subjects he refers to Alexander's "Memoirs." Beginning back in the campaign of 1862, Mr. Page gradually and skilfully inspires a prejudice against Longstreet until the reader is prepared for this sentence (p. 187):

It used to be common soon after the war for old Confederate officers to declare that he [Longstreet] should have been shot immediately after the battle [Gettysburg], and that Napoleon would certainly have done so. But Lee was cast in a different mould.

There's a fine climax, indeed!

To make the villain all the blacker, the fleet and ready Jackson is put in contrast. But even "Stonewall" was slow and fatally disappointed expectations in the peninsular campaign. Next to climaxes and contrasts, fiction-writers

have a genius for rescues. Mr. Page recently received a letter whose writer says (pp. 106, 107) that at the time of the battle of the first Cold Harbor, Jackson's guide told him that Jackson arrived late because the road had been lost as a result of changes wrought by the armies. This hearsay evidence—only forty-six years old—is conclusive, and the letter is printed as an appendix. But, alas, the serious blot on "Stonewall's" record is that, a few days later, he lost a whole day at White Oak Swamp, when he heard the guns near Glendale (Frazier's Farm) and knew that he was expected and needed. With a light touch, Mr. Page says (p. 103) that "the failure of some of his [Lee's] lieutenants to grasp the situation prevented the complete success of his plans." To have named Jackson would have shown that he was twice delinquent in a few days, and would have made a parallel instead of a contrast with Longstreet.

Among many other choice historical novelties, Mr. Page furnishes touching and conclusive evidence that Gen. Sherman made war on women and children by saying (p. 168) that when Howell Cobb's plantation was devastated by Sherman in 1864, Cobb "was in his honored grave two years ere this, having fallen at the foot of Marye's Heights, as a brave man falls, holding back brave men." Who knows but that if a kind Providence had not decided that Howell Cobb was to survive the war several years and die in the peaceful old Fifth Avenue Hotel, he might have fought in Virginia, and even have been among the honored dead at Fredericksburg?

The perfect biography of Lee will be the one that gives the facts in a plain and limpid narrative, for Lee's irresistibly noble character needs none of the arts of fiction nor the errors of tradition. And his greatest virtues and talents were so superior and rare that it would be vanity to claim that they were typical of any State or section or nation or race.

CURRENT FICTION.

Kincaid's Battery. By George W. Cable. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

In "The Cavalier" Mr. Cable startled some of his old admirers and made many new ones by producing a story of adventurous and even sensational cast, wherein were many more heroic feats and hairbreadth 'scapes than seemed to the point—for Mr. Cable. The charm of the early tales was independent of mere happenings: it lay partly in the quaint indigenousness of his material, partly in the playful delineation of his style, the affectionate gallery with which he pictured the life of old New Orleans. There was always the sense of historic reality in his human types and their settings; but they

seemed as far as possible from the stage puppet and back-scene of the ordinary historical novel. "The Grandissimes" belongs to that vivid moment in the life of New Orleans which followed the cession of Louisiana. Who can forget the great Numa, the patriot and artist Raoul Innerarity, poor Palmyre—above all, the ladies Nancanou? The very perfume of that romantic hour is treasured up for us in this essential book. "The Cavalier" seemed neither better nor worse than other war-time romances, unless—as was not impossible—one were to consider its style by itself—its style rather in the smaller sense.

"Kincaid's Battery" stands upon distinctly firmer ground. There are, to be sure, incidents in it of a superfluously exciting or confounding nature, and a person or two in whom it is impossible to believe. The beautiful and villainous Flora Valcour and her equally wicked and charming grandmother accomplice are too bad to be true. And the machinery provided for our adventures—the hidden sliding panel, the stolen treasure, and that mysteriously prolonged immunity from the ordinary rewards of theft, slander, malice, and all uncharitableness—are ancient devices indeed. Anna Callender marks a return to Mr. Cable's earlier type of heroine from the stalwart she of "The Cavalier." She loves with a soft ferocity, and with a soft ferocity denies her love and beats back the object of it—till the moment of absolute surrender comes. It is she rather than the creole Flora who reminds us enchantingly of Aurore and Clotilde Nancanou. Perhaps the tale pleases us chiefly because it takes us back to the old scene and the old figures. The place is New Orleans and the time the outbreak of the civil war. In Kincaid's Battery, equipped and blessed by the ladies of New Orleans, are enrolled a Fusilier, an Innerarity, divers Grandissimes, and (Ah, lovely Clotilde!) two Frowenfelds. The pale features of Doctor Sevier and the cheerful or anxious faces of other old acquaintances hover in the background. We could well forego the story for the sake of drawing somewhat closer to these ancient intimates.

From the point of view of the romance-reader that is no doubt a delightful incident which brings together between two opposing battle-lines the hero (who ought to be commanding his battery), the heroine, who, without knowing that he is anywhere near, has called to him audibly on general principles, and the adventuress, who has followed him and takes the opportunity to cling about his neck in full view of and to the utter confusion of the heroine. It will be rather deplored by Mr. Cable's older readers, who yet may, by way of recompense, find so much elsewhere in the book to reassure them of his con-

tinued power to weave the old spells. The theatrical inventions might, we say, be dispensed with. The atmosphere of the tale, the aroma of that war-time beauty and valor of the South, are as distinguishable as that perfume of the older Louisiana, the Louisiana of "The Grandissimes" and "Doctor Sevier."

Mirage. By E. Temple Thurston. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

If "Mirage" were less well-written, it would be less exasperating. As it stands, the old Vicomte has an undeniable reality that makes one resent a certain suggestion of gloating in the author's way of bedecking him with borrowed joys only to pull them off again, leaving him all the colder for having known what warmth might mean. One by one—not by the will of Fate, but by the unmistakable agency of the writer—Monsieur du Guesclin is given a cottage in the country, the promise of a fortune, the ghost of an old love reincarnated in the loved one's daughter. The girl naturally turns to youth; her uncle, who has dabbled disastrously in speculation, recoups himself through the generosity of her elderly suitor; the promised fortune proves a delusion, and we leave the poor old seigneur back in the detested city, the shades of the prison-house of a London lodging closing about him, stripped even of the few trinkets that linked him to the past. We are quite resigned to his loss of Rozanne—he would never have been so happy with the reality as with the dream—but we rebel against the sacrifice of the snuff-box. At that point the author crosses the dangerous line between the pathetic and the merely irritating. This tendency gratuitously to over-scarify the reader's feelings mars slightly even the charming quaintness of the loves of Courtot, the Vicomte's servant, and Mrs. Bulpitt, kindly and homely souls that the average reader will pronounce the real hero and heroine of the story.

Das hohe Lied Von Hermann Sudermann. New York: Imported by G. E. Stechert & Co.

It is difficult to judge the later work of Sudermann without referring to the earlier. The issues so strongly presented in his first story, "Frau Sorge" (known in the English version as "Dame Care"), the powerful drama of the sins of the fathers unjustly visited upon the children in "Der Katzensteg" (called in the English translations "Regina" and "The Cat's Bridge"), and the tragedy of wrong and repentance in the life of his Leo Sellenthin in "Es War," force comparisons between the new writing and the old. The moralist who startled Berlin audiences with his early dramas of contemporary German life, "Ehre" and "Sodoms Ende," is also behind the nov-

elist Sudermann. But neither he nor his readers have stood still in the twenty years or more. While in his early stories he was content with suggesting the moral lesson, in his recent novel he conveys it by picturing depravity with an abundance of minute and repulsive detail as needless for artistic effect as for ethical purpose. He commands respect for his seriousness and insistence, but he fails to win the sympathy of his readers.

"Das hohe Lied" is a masterpiece of the Sudermann of to-day. For construction of plot, characterization of his people, and faithful reproduction of atmosphere few recent works of German fiction can compete with it. The title, too, is well chosen; for the great unappreciated work of genius, which the Kapellmeister Czepanek has composed to the words of the Song of Songs, strikes the keynote of the tale. The heroine had heard its sensuous melodies in her cradle; she had grown up with them until the day when the erratic musician, her father, leaves wife and child for a life of liberty in regions unknown. The manuscript remained her only solace and treasure, when, after the mother's incarceration in an insane asylum, she is alone in the world and enters upon the sordid struggle for her daily bread—a life almost commonplace in its typical sequence of poverty, temptation, and defection. The girl, who, in order to escape the misery of insufficient food and clothes, agrees to wed an aged libertine, is unfortunately not a rare specimen of womanhood. Nor does the inevitable awakening which comes to her with all its obvious consequences tax the author's inventive powers. Reality furnished him with all the raw material.

The strength of the book lies in the sympathetic individualization of character. A curious product of heredity, social conditions, and adventitious circumstances, the heroine has withal some redeeming qualities. Without claiming for her the unsullied purity of Wassermann's Renate Fuchs, the author fairly succeeds in convincing us of the innate goodness of Lilly Czepanek's nature. The man whom she marries, a colonel of the army, reconciles us by the sincerity of his cynicism. When their married life closes with an ugly discord, one feels that both have reaped their reward; she for having sold body and soul for material comfort, he for having sought nothing but the satisfaction of his senses. The objectionable features are the minor characters and incidents which the author crowds into his canvas, evidently for the purpose of convincing his readers of the hopelessly vicious life of the Berlin Bohème. Even if there are characters like the journalist Salmoni, the artist Kellermann, and the charming Frau Jula among the men and women of the newspaper and studio

world of the German metropolis, one would rather be spared the minute portrayal of them, and the elaborate description of their pastimes.

The Making of Ireland and Its Undoing, 1200-1600. By Alice Stopford Green. Pp. xvi+510. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$2.50 net.

A positive mania for publishing abroad the virtues and glories of the Irish race, and for correcting the numerous wrongs and misconceptions to which it has been exposed, has pursued Mrs. J. R. Green like an avenging fury for the past half-dozen years. The present work—consisting of thirteen essays on various phases of Irish life in the Middle Ages and Tudor times—is a valiant effort to accomplish this double result. But the book utterly fails to convince. Its proud scorn of the traditional authorities on its subject—as, for instance, Bagwell's "Ireland under the Tudors"—evokes at first sight a hesitating admiration; but on second reading we find ourselves wishing that Mrs. Green had at least kept in some touch with, even if she could not implicitly trust, the work of previous laborers in this vineyard. On the other hand, the quotation of a number of objurgations and abusive epithets, culled here and there from the reports of English officials in Ireland, without the slightest regard to the circumstances under which they were written or the persons to whom they were addressed, is not a very telling method of proving that Ireland has been shockingly misrepresented from the earliest times. One might as well cite Henry VIII's well-known characterization of the rebels of the Pilgrimage of Grace as the "rude commons of our shire, and that one of the most brute and beestlie of the whole realme," as evidence that the English kings never comprehended the undoubted virtues of the inhabitants of Lincolnshire. We look in vain for a frank statement of the many causes that justified the Tudor sovereigns in taking Ireland firmly in hand, especially the divergence in religion and the fact that it was a continual refuge and harboring place for Spanish plots and hostile expeditions. And the chief landmarks of Irish history, to which we have been accustomed to look for guidance—such as Poyning's Acts, Henry VIII's assumption of the title of King of Ireland, the landing of the first Jesuit mission there—are either slurred over or completely ignored.

That the Irishman has been abominably misunderstood and maltreated by the Englishman at different stages of his history, no one is disposed to deny, and we must be grateful to Mrs. Green for forbearing to utilize the rich material afforded by the history of the last three centuries in further support of this well-

established fact. But that English misconception and maltreatment are the sole or even the most important cause of the miserable condition of Ireland today, that there has been a "long perversion of Irish history" in the interest of politics, or that it has always been supposed to be the business of the historian of Ireland "to seek out every element of political instability, every trace of private disorder, every act of personal violence, every foreign slander, and out of these alone, neglecting all indications of industry or virtue, to depict a national life" (p. xi), may well be doubted. The Irish race has always possessed certain sterling qualities—warm-heartedness and personal devotion are among the most prominent—but, on the other hand, it has been singularly lacking in capacity for self-government, stability, and union. Though it has had many heroes, their work has always been of a character rather local than national, and the glories of Irish history have suffered in consequence. In so far as Mrs. Green's book is a plea for a fuller and more impartial study of the field with which it deals, it is heartily to be welcomed; but we fear that future writers who follow to their logical conclusion the lines of argument which she has laid down, will find, ere long, that they serve to obscure rather than to illuminate the truth.

From Peking to Mandalay: A Journey from North China to Burma through Tibetan Ssueh'uan and Yunnan. By R. F. Johnston. Pp. xli+460; with maps and illustrations. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$5 net.

This is the story of a wanderer in search of things strange and beautiful. His chief aim was to learn something about that wild border-land on the far west of China. Its interest lies both in the loveliness and grandeur of its river and mountain scenery, and in the number and diversity of the races by which it is peopled, of whose origin and history, social, physical, and linguistic peculiarities little is known. Having travelled extensively in China and learned the language, Mr. Johnston was well qualified for his task. Leaving Peking in January, 1906, he went by rail to Hankow, and thence up the Yangtse by steamer and through the famous rapids and gorges by "red-boat." This is the name of the government life-boats now stationed near each of the most dangerous rapids and manned by skilful and daring river-men, who annually save many lives from the wrecked junks. At Wan-hsien he left the river and went overland to Ch'eng-tu, the capital city of the province of Ssueh'uan. On his way thither he found posted in the towns and villages proclamations calling the attention of

the people to a railway which the government proposed to construct from the capital to the Yangtse. The announcement pointed out the great benefits to the trade and prosperity of the province, and invited subscriptions for shares. To those who can remember that only thirty years ago the prejudice of the Chinese against railways was so great that the government bought the little road running out of Shanghai, sold the plant, and tore up the rails, this is a remarkable indication of progress. In Ch'eng-tu there is a provincial college with about three hundred students, who are being educated in Western as well as Chinese branches of learning:

There is an Englishman who lectures on chemistry and physics, there are several Japanese lecturers and a staff of Chinese teachers who have a knowledge of European languages.

From this city he went by the mountain region which constitutes the western frontier of the empire through Yunnan to Burma—the whole journey taking a little over five months.

The larger part of the book is devoted to this little-travelled region, and as the author's object is to give information rather than furnish entertainment, the work is not easy reading. There are minute details of the route followed, numerous references to the different tribes encountered, and their racial affinities and origin, a summary of the results of his and other travelers' ethnological investigations, a discussion of Chinese Buddhism, with special reference to a visit to the shrines on the sacred mountain Omei, and many suggestions as to feasible trade-routes between Burma and China. An indication of the undeveloped mineral wealth of that western region is to be found in the fact that in one place coal was so abundant that the poorest peasants freely used it for heating and cooking. The concluding chapter upon the present conditions in China is suggestive and valuable. In Mr. Johnston's opinion, the stage of civilization which the Chinese have reached is much higher than is generally believed. As a proof of their law-abiding character, he tells us, from his own experience as district officer and magistrate of the leased territory Weihaiwei, that in this district, 200 square miles in extent, with about 200 villages and nearly 100,000 inhabitants, there are only eight policemen; yet during a recent period of six months, there were only reported three cases of robbery. "During more than two years in Weihaiwei I have tried Englishmen and Japanese for being drunk and disorderly, but never a single Chinese." The neighboring districts under Chinese rule, he adds, are just as well behaved, if not, indeed, better. The book contains an excellent index and an appendix containing notes, vocabularies

of six tribal languages, and the itinerary. The illustrations are reproductions of photographs, many of the wonderful mountain scenery, a fairyland of beauty.

Primary Elections. By C. E. Merriam. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. \$1.35.

The preëminence which ancient Greece has long been accorded as a bazaar of political curiosities can no longer be conceded, in view of such an exhibition as Professor Merriam makes in his "Primary Elections." The aspiration of Edward Everett's school-boy orator that Columbia's soil may—

Exceed what Greece or Rome has done
Or any land beneath the sun.

has been satisfied in this particular. It is amazing what an intricate plexus of legal regulation has grown up about what was originally, and still is in other countries, a very simple matter. And the process of change continues, producing additional complexity, in conformity with the general principle that one organic change tends ever to initiate another. Professor Merriam remarks that no sooner was the movement for compulsory regulation of party action generally successful than a demand arose for abolishing the convention system, and for establishing the direct primary. Now that the direct primary is so widely introduced that it is the predominant form of party action, "there is discernible a powerful movement in favor of nomination by petition as a substitute both for the convention system and for the direct primary" (p. 135).

Professor Merriam himself thinks that the advantages of the direct primary outweigh the defects, but he points out that there are possibilities of abuses that have already begun to excite demands for further reform. Some of the defects are decidedly curious. For instance, Mr. Anderson has a substantial advantage over Mr. Zimmerman in candidacy, because of mere alphabetical priority. To secure equity in this respect, it is suggested that "the order of printing may be changed in such a way that the name of each of the candidates shall appear first an approximately equal number of times" (p. 143). Another point of advantage derived from casual notoriety:

There is much evidence tending to show that the well-known man, regardless of what he is known for, has an advantage in the race for the nomination over one better qualified, but less generally known (p. 122).

So then, when the suffragettes get their inning, the name and fame of a Lydia Pinkham may become a valuable political asset. The expense of the direct primary is also a trouble. Professor Merriam admits that there is serious dan-

ger that "the man without large means may find it almost impossible to enter the primary lists, or that he may incur obligations of a character that may interfere with his usefulness to the public." It is suggested that this danger may be mitigated by public appropriation "to defray a part of the expenses of candidates in primaries" (p. 174). In support of this suggestion reference is made to President Roosevelt's recommendation of public subsidies to party campaign funds. The adoption of this policy would be a new point of departure for evolutionary process that should yield interesting developments. Infant industries in party-manufacture and candidacy would naturally claim generous consideration.

Altogether, the facts presented by Professor Merriam abundantly sustain his conclusion:

No friend of direct nomination should indulge the pleasant dream that the adoption of a law providing for such a system will, of itself, act as a cure for the present-day party evils.

Indeed, the great merit of this work is that it is a timely demonstration of the absurdity of the present multiplicity of elective offices. While he is an advocate of the method, Professor Merriam admits that the direct primary "will not achieve its full results until the number of elective offices is materially reduced." Perhaps, then, the importance of the whole subject may be correspondingly reduced.

Science.

THE MESSINA EARTHQUAKE: PREDICTION AND PROTECTION.

When the man of science is asked "What caused the earthquake?" he must confess to ignorance. It was either subterranean steam, or unequal yielding to internal contraction of immense blocks of the earth's crust, or deep-seated movements of lavas slowly rising under Δ etna. Or, what is still more likely, it was all three of these in mutual dependence. If we maintained earth observatories as we do astronomical ones, we might know, and we might perhaps have predicted and forewarned.

This new catastrophe is the thirteenth of the century, and brings the death-list to about 300,000, or 100 persons a day since January 1, 1901. An eruption of Δ etna is also beginning and may still further swell the fatal roll. The record includes Guatemala, Martinique, St. Vincent, Mobile, Galveston, San Francisco, Valparaiso, Jamaica, Kartaghan, India, Calabria, Vesuvius, and Messina. The property loss is countless millions. Eight of these places are American. At all of them the destruction has been wrought by natural agencies. In the cases of Mo-

bile and Galveston, there was definite prediction by the Weather Bureau. This office, which systematically records the movements of the atmosphere at widely distributed stations, is now recognized as one of the most efficient, valuable, and humane scientific organizations in the world. Similar meteorological establishments are maintained by all civilized nations. The other disasters were occasioned by volcanoes or earthquakes. The coast-lines of the world are dotted with volcanoes, and no region is known which is exempt from earthquakes. No geologist in the United States would venture to deny, for example, the statement that New York city is just as liable to a great earthquake disaster as was Charleston in 1886. With these facts before us, it would seem justifiable to call science to account for its attitude with regard to the lithosphere (or rock-crust) as contrasted with its point of view concerning the atmosphere. Sometimes a great affliction, like this which has stunned and mutilated Italy, may work beneficently by stimulating men to a new vision of their usefulness.

A great convention of American geologists has just completed its deliberations in Baltimore. All of these men are interested in earthquakes, but probably not half a dozen members of the society have any technical or mathematical knowledge of them, and not many more have ever experienced one. The idea that such experience is important for a geologist would be scoffed at as a jest. Many of these men are teachers in universities. If a Martian astronomer were to appear suddenly among them, after returning from a visit to the Lowell observatory at Flagstaff, where his own existence had been so wonderfully interpreted, the following dialogue might be expected:

"Where you know the heavens so well, of course your own earth is to you as an open book?"

"Yes," reluctantly.

"You have observatories for the recording of all earth phenomena?"

"No."

"What! Did you not learn everything about local terrestrial motions before you studied the stars?"

"No, we do not know anything about terrestrial movements."

"Do you mean to tell me that you have not many instruments for observing them?"

"We have the seismograph, but none of us understands it, and as for other earth motions, all we know we have learned from the physicist and the astronomer."

"But you live on the earth, and have to meet every crisis as it arises; can you foretell nothing?"

"Well, you see, we don't think of it that way. We treat it historically, and make notes, and use a hammer and a

compass, and are very much interested in the bones of Jurassic reptiles and in making maps of the rocks, and in finding out all about iron and coal. But we have no such precise knowledge as the astronomer."

"But surely, in teaching your young men in the universities, you begin by precise instrumental study of the present earth and its processes, and have a vast accumulation of experience concerning those processes, in the form of tables, measurements, formulae, curves, diagrams, and computations?"

"No, almost nothing has been done in accumulating experience or empirical data, *except by the Japanese*. When a volcanic eruption or an earthquake occurs we send a geologist to study the results, and he writes a thick and learned report. We do not know anything about what the conditions were during the months before the disaster. We teach our young geologists first a little physics and chemistry, and a few generalities about earth process, and then set them to work mapping ancient rocks. The *highest* development of geology is the unravelling of the history of the past. We haven't time to go into prediction and humanistic geology."

The above is not exaggerated. The blame does not rest with the geologist, it rests rather with the haphazard growth of the science. The very proximity of the earth has made terrestrial observation and measurement difficult, in view of the littleness of man. This plea, however, can no longer be urged in extenuation of the neglect of the study of earth process. We have considerable knowledge of physical science, and there are many instruments applicable to the earth. There is a very precise science known as geodesy, which has for its object the determination of the figure of the earth. There is geology, which aims to decipher earth history. Between these two there is needed a new science, many phases of which are now being studied, and this might well be named geonomy, the science of the laws which govern the earth.

There is one grave difficulty in the way of rapid development of this science, and that is expense. It is a science that calls for the establishment of observatories in many lands. These observatories will have for their objects the study of the changes which are going on in the crust of the earth under them and the relations of those changes to astronomical and meteorological changes. The new science, like astronomy and the study of the atmosphere, deals with moving things and so requires continuous local records, through weeks and months and years. Seismographs, microphones, magnetographs, gravity, pendulums, pyrometers, thermometers, gas-collecting apparatus, and many special instruments adapted to

local needs are among the devices with which an earth observatory should be equipped.

The natural places for establishing such observatories at first are lands where the earth movements are most rapid, regions of volcanoes and frequent earthquakes. In such establishment, the Japanese have taken the lead, and their island empire is girdled with observatories. The writer has before him a pamphlet, in English, printed in Tokio in October, 1908, containing eleven contributions to practical seismology by a Japanese investigator, F. Omori, the first of which bears the significant title "On the Fore-Shocks of Earthquakes." Dr. Omori declares, "My belief is that a large destructive earthquake will be foretold in its epicentral region by some fore-shocks," and this belief he substantiates by exact instrumental proofs.

With reference to Sicily, it is well to make note of the fact that an American volcanologist, Frank Alvord Perret, has predicted disaster on Mount Etna for two years past. Mr. Perret, who was decorated by the Crown of Italy for his splendid service to science and to humanity on Vesuvius in 1906, wrote in the *World's Work* of November, 1907:

By the rational methods of scientific research, we know that a great eruption of Mt. Etna is impending, the only uncertainty at present being which side of the mountain will break open.

Great volcanic eruptions are preceded by great earthquakes, and the Messina disaster of December 28 comes on an earthquake date ("terrestrial maximum of gravitational stress") actually platted in advance by Mr. Perret on his diagrams for 1908. Like Dr. Omori, he is a man whose whole time is unselfishly devoted to these studies, but he has no observatory and no adequate means of support. A few business men in Springfield, Mass., last year came valiantly to his aid, and now their foresight is worthy of all honor. When young men think of making science their life-work, it would be well to remember Pasteur, and to consider carefully whether the highest development of the investigative faculties may not concern itself with humane rather than with historical motives. To those who will give time and money to the establishment of earth observatories, there will come by way of reward some of the most astonishing discoveries of the twentieth century.

Plans have been prepared in Boston for an earthquake-proof observatory and museum, built on Japanese lines, to be equipped with instruments for measuring earth tremor, earth waves, earth sounds, earth tilt, earth gravity, and earth magnetism. It is proposed to secure an endowment which will provide for expeditions as the most important work of the observatory, whereby trained men will be sent to volcanic lands to

carry on research which may not be done at home. The Geological Society of America has passed urgent resolutions strongly recommending "to governments and to private enterprise the establishment of volcano and earthquake observatories." What should be done in New York? It may be well to state briefly the vision of what could be done to set an example to the world: Provide \$4,200,000. Erect ten small observatories costing \$20,000 each, in New York, Porto Rico, Canal Zone, San Francisco, Alaska, Aleutian Islands, Philippines, Hawaii, Scotland, and Sicily. With \$200,000 per annum, the income of four millions, supply each observatory with \$10,000 per annum to maintain its director, assistant, and expenses, and reserve \$100,000 for the central office for administration, exploration, and publication. Define the objects of the work to be direct measurement and record of earth process with a view to the benefit of humanity. Define three immediate goals for the investigators: (1) Prediction of earthquakes; (2) prediction of volcanic eruptions; (3) engineering and construction in volcanic and seismic lands. The objects of the two European stations are to cover the important volcanic fields of Iceland, the east Atlantic, and southern Italy, and to keep in touch with the advance of European science. The work would be strictly American, and if it were carried out, it would be epoch-making in the history of science.

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J. G. Spurzheim's "Phrenology," which attracted attention seventy-five years ago, has been reprinted, with some abbreviations, by the J. B. Lippincott Co. As a literary curiosity it is even more interesting than Dr. Gall's classical fantasies.

"Kulturpflanzen der Weltwirtschaft" is an illustrated volume written by different authors (Leipzig: Voigtländer), containing interesting accounts of the discovery and development of tea, coffee, cotton, and other useful plants, their diffusion among various nations, as well as their influence on industrial, commercial, and social life and on the growth of civilization and human customs and character in general. Especially entertaining and instructive is the chapter on the origin and cultivation of tobacco. One aspect of these investigations deserves special mention. The stamp impressed by the physical world upon races and its influence in determining the peculiarities of men and nations have long been recognized; and there are systems of anthropology and ethnology and philosophies of history, which admit only these material causes and derive from them all so-called moral and mental characteristics. But it is only in comparatively recent times that the counterpart of this view has been considered and that the effects of human action in modifying the aspect of nature and in changing the physical condition of the earth have attracted the serious attention of scientific men. One of

the most interesting phases of this subject is the transformations produced in the flora, as well as the fauna, of a country, a phenomenon which has been observed on a large scale since the discovery of the Western hemisphere. In Greece and Italy these processes have greatly changed the primitive physiognomy of those lands. Imagine the effect of removing the aloe and the cactus from the rock coast of the Mediterranean; and yet these prickly plants of bluish-green with fleshy leaves and gorgeous blossoms, which harmonize so well with the landscape, have been introduced from South America during the last three centuries. The cypress, with its gloomy but grateful shade, is a native of the mountains of Afghanistan; the orchards of olive and fig-trees are from Palestine and Syria; and the splendid palms in the cloistered court of SS. Giovanni e Paolo on the Celian Mount and in the magnificent grove of Bordighera between Genoa and Nice are exiles from Arabia and the oases of the Sahara.

The advent of the Chinese woman doctor was celebrated a few weeks ago by the conferring of diplomas on six graduates of the Women's Medical School at Shanghai. It was founded three years ago, the funds having been provided by Li-Ping-Shu, president of the Chinese Town Council. The principal is a Chinese woman who has received an advanced education in Canton and Hongkong; and there are thirty students. Each of the six graduates read essays, two of which were in English.

George Washington Hough, professor of astronomy at Northwestern University and director of the Dearborn Observatory, died suddenly January 1 at his home in Evanston. He was seventy-two years old. Professor Hough's greatest contributions to science were his observations regarding the planet Jupiter. He discovered and measured more double stars than any other astronomer now living, about 550 in all. His inventions include a device for making maps of stars during observation, and many other scientific instruments now used in observatories. Besides contributions to the magazines, he published "Annals of the Dudley Observatory."

The death is announced of C. E. Stuyvaert of the Royal Observatory of Belgium. He was born in 1851, and began his work at the observatory (then at Brussels) in 1879. He was engaged, at the time of his death, on a large-scale globe of the moon.

Drama.

The Bohemian Jinks. By Porter Garnett. San Francisco: The Hicks Publishing Company.

Mr. Garnett has written an interesting book, describing the origin and growth of the forest dramas, produced annually in midsummer by the Bohemian Club of San Francisco. When these celebrations began, thirty years ago, they were exceedingly informal, but gradually, after the club had acquired possession of two hundred and forty acres of forest land,

at Guerneville, seventy-five miles from San Francisco, they began to assume a distinctive and elaborate form, of a musical, dramatic, allegorical, and spectacular character. Thus, within the last decade the performances have included pieces—akin both to the ancient masques and modern fairy extravaganza—bearing such titles as "The Enigma of Life," "The Man in the Forest," "Montezuma," "The Hamadryads," and "The Triumph of Bohemia," the work of well known literary men and artists, members of the club, and presented with striking instrumental, vocal, and electric effects. The peculiar feature of these performances is that they occur at night in the natural woodland and that all artificial mechanism is carefully hidden. The proscenium of the theatre is formed by two huge redwood trees, at the foot of a steep ascent, thickly covered by brush. A series of foot-paths connect invisible platforms, constructed one above another, on the face of the hill. From the front, the effect is one of virgin forest, but actually there is a stage of many tiers, conveying a sense of space and distance, and facilities for grouping, impossible in the ordinary theatre.

Open-air drama, of course, is no new thing, either in the old or new worlds, but these Californian Bohemians appear to have improved upon precedent, by devising allegorical spectacles suitable to the natural conditions and on that account peculiarly impressive. They have succeeded, also, apparently, in making romance realistic by a complete avoidance of theatrical convention. Mr. Garnett, perhaps, overrates the significance of these celebrations as a new type of drama—their characteristics being directly traceable to local influences and special opportunities—but there seems to be no doubt that in literary and imaginative quality they are out of the common.

"Aristophanische Studien," by Hugo Weber (Leipzig: Theodor Weicher), is a recent book which treats in scholarly fashion some leading perplexities in the comedies of Aristophanes.

A noteworthy collection of famous German dramas is edited by Prof. Georg Witkowski under the title, *Die Meisterwerke der deutschen Bühne* (Leipzig: Max Hesse). Recent additions are Karl Gutzkow's comedies, "Zopf und Schwert," "Das Urbild des Tartuffe," and "Der Königslieutenant," with introduction and notes by Dr. Alfred Klaar. Dr. Klaar is also responsible for the introduction and the notes of Gutzkow's tragedy, "Uriel Acosta," which is perhaps the best known of his dramas, and which has been translated into English by Richard Hovey. Heinrich Laube's "Karlschüler," the famous play which makes use of some of Schiller's experiences at the school of his patron, the Duke of Würtemberg, and his tragedy, "Graf Essex," are introduced and annotated by Prof. Alexander von Weilen.

The Volks-Schillerpreis of 3,000 marks was recently awarded to Ernst Hardt, in recognition of his five-act drama, "Tantris der Narr." His competitors were Julius Bab, Hugo von Hofmannsthal, and K. Gjellerup.

Music.

Edvard Grieg. Von Gerhard Schjelderup and Walter Niemann. Leipzig: C. F. Peters.

Larger Piano Compositions. Edvard Grieg. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. \$1.50.

Fifty Songs. Edvard Grieg. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. \$1.50.

Edvard Grieg is dead, but his music is more alive than ever. In addition to the copyrighted Copenhagen and Leipzig editions of his works, there are more than forty American reprints of them, and no name on a concert programme is more popular than his. Books on his art and personality also are multiplying rapidly. For many years Closson's French brochure was the only source of information. Then came Schjelderup's biography, in Norwegian, which was followed by the first book in English, H. T. Finck's "Edvard Grieg" (in John Lane's Living Masters of Music series), of which a greatly enlarged new edition is now in press. George Bell & Sons published last spring in their Miniature Series a little book of eighty pages by E. Markham Lee. A month ago the Leipzig firm of C. F. Peters, which has published Grieg's music ever since 1863, issued a quasi-official biography by Schjelderup and Niemann; and the latest issue of the Peters catalogue also announces the forthcoming reminiscences (including 198 Grieg letters) of his friend, Julius Roentgen, the eminent Dutch composer and editor of Grieg's posthumous works. These works, which are just out, include a string quartet, eleven songs, three pianoforte pieces, and the orchestral score of the "Peer Gynt" music complete.

During the last decade of his life Grieg was repeatedly offered large sums for his autobiography, but his health was too poor (for forty years he had only one lung to breathe with) to allow him to undertake a task requiring such a prolonged effort. This is to be greatly regretted, for the story of his life, told by himself, would have made very interesting reading. His letters are characterized by the same clearness, individuality, directness, northern sentiment, and mingled melancholy and gayety as his songs and pianoforte pieces. His skill in literary composition was publicly revealed in articles on Schumann and Mozart which he wrote for the *Century Magazine* and one

on Verdi, which was printed in the *Nineteenth Century* and *Littell's Living Age*. Parts of an amusing and vivid autobiographic sketch covering his childhood and his student days at the Leipzig conservatory appeared in the *Contemporary Review*. The whole of this sketch, in the original German, is reprinted in the volume by Schjelderup and Niemann now before us, and will make every reader wish it had been continued. Schjelderup, who contributes the biographic half of this volume, is one of the ablest of the younger Norwegian composers; and, what is more, he knew Grieg personally. Some letters to him from the great composer are included, but what gives this book a unique value is the interwoven letters to his Leipzig publisher, Max Abraham (head of the Peters firm), with whom Grieg corresponded forty years. These letters are not only delightfully intimate, but in some cases they take the place of chapters in the missing autobiography. After the death of this friend, they were addressed to his nephew and successor, Herr Hinrichsen, to whom he wrote among other things a most vivid account of two days spent with the German Emperor on his yacht—a letter which shows the Kaiser in one of his most characteristic attitudes as a musical enthusiast. There is also a full epistolary account of the festivities attending Grieg's silver wedding.

From these letters and the details supplied by the author, we learn that Grieg, despite his ill-health, enjoyed life on the whole and seldom felt the *tedium vita*, as his friend Liszt so often did. He even joked about his infirmities, regretting only that they so seldom allowed him to enjoy the raptures of creative work, or make arduous excursions to the mountains for the collecting of folk songs. Concerning old age, he agreed with his friend Herzogenberg, who said: "Life is a dinner. I have come to the cheese, which tastes very good." He might have lived longer, could he have resisted the invitations to give concerts. On this point he wrote, in March, 1906:

From a financial point of view, I can get along without these concerts, and a public appearance is the most terrible thing I know of. My nerves, my entire person, suffers indescribable tortures, but a certain something, I know not what, urges me on irresistibly. A beautiful orchestral performance of my works and a sympathetic audience are things I cannot resist. That, I think, is what makes me act so foolishly.

Grieg's compositions are analyzed at considerable length in the second part of this volume by Walter Niemann, with an enthusiasm tempered by criticism. A few errors have crept into the last chapter. Grieg did not speak English so well as he did German and he did not write his article on Mozart in English. The *Century* is not published by the Macmillan

ian Company, and the Old Norwegian Romance is not opus 50 but 51. There is a good bibliography, and a considerable number of pictures and facsimiles add to the attractiveness of the volume.

Grieg is now also represented in the Musicians Library of the Oliver Ditson Company. Two volumes have been issued at once. One contains six of the more important works for pianoforte—the Humoresques, the sonata, opus 7, Sketches of Norwegian Life, the Ballade in G minor, the antique suite "From Holberg's Times," and the admirable concerto, with the orchestral part arranged for the same instrument, so that it can be played on two pianos. The editor of this volume is Bertha Feiring Tapper, who has supplied a brief introduction. The other volume contains Grieg's best fifty songs and has a more elaborate introduction by Henry T. Finck, who is so fortunate as to be able to cite Grieg's own opinion of this selection:

Always the critics have pointed out my least important things as the best, and unfortunately also, vice versa. How happy I am that this is not the case with you. You have in the main dwelt on the very songs which I myself consider the best.

E. H. Hadow, one of the leading musical scholars of England, is at work on a life of Schubert, which will no doubt be the last word—and the best—on that subject. He has the private notes collected by Grove for his work on Schubert.

Art.

The Flowers and Gardens of Japan.
Painted by Ella DuCane; described by Florence DuCane. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$6 net.

The flowers and the gardens of Japan are already the subject of so many books that every new work on the topic must, in order to secure attention, bring some fresh attraction. The present volume offers us extremely interesting pictures in color, together with a modest and pleasing account of the principal elements which lend to Japanese landscape architecture its peculiar charm. The pictures themselves are excellent "three-color" reproductions of delicate and truthful paintings, which convey a vivid impression of the garden beauty of Japan. Since these pictures supplement in a satisfactory manner the most exhaustive treatise in English that we have on Japanese gardens, namely, that by Josiah Conder, the volume is a slight but real addition to our garden literature. We wonder, indeed, at the temerity shown in undertaking the subject in a small volume like this; but only the most important features are chosen, and they are treated effectively. Passing over certain slight shortcom-

ings in the work, we would indicate briefly the general scheme and method.

The aim of landscape gardening in Japan is to provide a restful place for pleasure in meditation. Therefore, harmony must prevail, with no discordant note in either form or color, and with true proportions in every part, whether the garden be a toy affair covering a few square rods, or bounded by the distant horizon. Every accessory must tell, each in its proper sphere. Many of these accessories are unknown in the landscape architecture of other lands, although some have their foreign equivalents. For us of the Occident it is difficult, for instance, to conceive of effective use of small stones, except in the "rockery," or something of the sort; but the Japanese often select decorative stones with great care and accomplish with them remarkable results. Again, symbolic lanterns and carvings, as the Japanese employ them, are seldom distracting or even disturbing, whereas the obtrusive statuary of some of our formal gardens is sometimes both, or at least bewildering. Japanese management of water and of bridges is generally pleasing, and such structures as pagodas, for example, are in perfect keeping. But above all, Japanese gardeners understand that flowers can create confusion in a landscape; that is, a group of blossoms of different sorts does not compose the mind and conduce to meditation, though a single group, say of cherry trees or of irises in bloom, may promote quiet thought. Sometimes this theory is, of course, carried to an extreme in gardens where tree forms are the prominent feature and where blossoms are wholly wanting. But in most instances flowering trees are arranged so as to impart pleasure, and a few trees are treasured for their brilliant leaves at certain seasons. Aside from a few herbaceous plants, like the iris, the lotus, and the chrysanthemum, woody stems of distinctive form are the favorite element in most Japanese gardens. To all of these plants, as well as to the bamboo and pine, the authors give due space. In fine, matters of practice are lightly touched, but with sufficient fulness to indicate the difficulties of the art.

The two important works by Josiah Conder, to which the author refers, must long remain for the English reader the source of minute knowledge in regard to Japanese gardens. In those treatises and in the hints offered by the DuCanes, one can see to what extent the art is based upon and blended with the various ceremonial observances which are so dear to the Japanese mind. Any examination of this earnest quest for quiet meditation should be helpful to us in hurried and noisy England and America, but it is not probable that we can be weaned from our composite gardens with their medleys of color. It is

still less probable that the art of Japanese gardening can be transplanted to our own country with any degree of success. But that is no reason why all who are fond of plants should not derive much pleasure from books so delightful as this.

Georg Reimer of Berlin has just published for the Royal Museum of that city "Altägypter von Pergamon," Band VII, "Die Skulpturen mit Ausnahme des Altarreliefs," by Franz Winter. There are many illustrations.

Among the exhibitions at the dealers' galleries in this city are landscapes by Miss Anna Fisher at Powell's, till January 15; paintings by Willard L. Metcalf, Montross's, January 16.

From London comes the report of the death of Lowes Dickinson at the age of eighty-nine. He was known for his portraits of eminent men, and also for his share in Christian-Socialist movement which in the middle of the last century engaged the interest of Charles Kingsley, Thomas Hughes, and F. D. Maurice. His son is G. Lowes Dickinson, the writer.

Finance.

STOCKS AND PROSPERITY.

On no phase of financial conditions do opinions differ more widely, as the new year begins, than on the question as to how far the stock market is to be accepted as a forecast of coming events in general business. Traditionally, the Stock Exchange performs that office. But the Stock Exchange, like many other institutions—not to mention individuals—has what may be called a dual personality. From one point of view, it is a delicate and sensitive organism, which is affected for better or worse by the same fundamental influences that affect industry in general, and which responds to such influences so much more quickly than outside trade, that its movements give an early warning of what is to happen elsewhere. From another point of view, the Stock Exchange is a huge machine which can be made to move in one direction or another by brute force of accumulated capital; its activities thus depend quite as much on facilities for borrowing upon easy terms as on any actual change of intrinsic values.

Now, any one conversant with the Stock Exchange will admit that, inconsistent as these descriptions seem, both are correct. If asked to present some typical instances in which the stock market accurately foretold the future, one may point to the market of March, August, and October, 1907, wherein the successive stages of the violent industrial reaction were foretold months before the expansion of general trade had stopped; or to that of April, 1903, when the demoralization of the steel trade in

the subsequent autumn was foreshadowed; or to April, 1901, when the Stock Exchange movement, extravagant as it was, gave notice of the immensely prosperous era which followed, and which continued long after the collapse of May 9 in Wall Street; or to September, 1898, when the great rise in stocks predicted a forward movement in trade, of which at that moment few positive signs were visible. This would seem strong enough to silence critics who contend that stock markets are manipulated in defiance of real conditions, or that those whom Europe calls our "magnates" can force prices this way and that, at their own sweet will. But on that side there are also precedents and leading cases. Unless one is to assume that the stock market looks no further ahead than the very near future, what are we to say of 1906, when a positively frenzied rise in prices came but a brief space ahead of the panic of 1907? How are we to explain the sharp advance on the London Stock Exchange in the early months of 1890, on the very eve of the "Baring collapse"? What about the exciting boom in our industrial stocks during January, 1893, when the year's great panic was only six months away? What about the well-grounded tradition that the Stock Exchange invariably indulges in a happy-go-lucky speculation for the rise, a very few months before the great financial crises?

The two sets of instances seem to involve a paradox, and to leave the student of the markets of 1908 completely baffled. The only way in which to reconcile conflicting precedents is to take not a single and temporary movement on the Stock Exchange, but a series of movements from which the general trend may be fairly judged, while also paying close attention to the character of the movement itself. If last year's markets are in review, it will not be enough to show that prices rose 10 or 15 points in this month, 15 or 20 in that, and so on. One must ask what

happened in the interval, and where the general level of values was left, when both movements had reached their end. A series of 10-point advances, followed by an equal number of 15-point declines, would, as a whole, represent a falling market, and would presumably foreshadow unfavorable developments in trade. On the other hand, a series of 15-point advances, followed successively by 5 or 10-point declines, fairly measures the fluctuations of 1908. Judged, not by its extreme and hysterical advances, but by its general direction, the stock market of last year was rising and foreshadowed improvement in general industry.

Whether the extravagance with which prices rose and fell ought to be accepted as predicting the method and manner of trade recovery in 1909, is a different question. It certainly cannot be said that the excitement on the Stock Exchange, in the spring of 1901, gave in any respect an indication of the subsequent process of trade expansion, which was orderly and normal. Yet the short-lived and violent "bull movements" of 1908, with the consequent relapses, are curiously like the spasmodic stampedes of buyers into the mercantile markets, to replete their empty shelves on three successive occasions, with the interval of stagnation which followed each of them.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach der Süddeutschen Monatshefte. Munich.
Andro. *L Das offene Tor.* Munich: Süd-deutsche Monatshefte.
Banzai, by Parabellum. The Baker & Taylor Co. \$1.50.
Barrett, S. A. *Pomo Indian Basketry.* Berkeley: The University Press.
Barton, James L. *Daybreak in Turkey.* The Pilgrim Press.
Beale, Harriet S. Blaine, Ed. *Letters of Mrs. James G. Blaine.* 2 vols. Duffield & Co.
Cook, Charles A. *Stewardship and Missions.* American Baptist Publication Society.
Crawford, William H. *The Church and the Slum.* Eton & Mains. 75c. net.
Culbreth, David M. R. *The University of Virginia.* Neale Publishing Co. \$5.00 net.

Dinner to Hon James Fitzgerald. Rogers & Co.
Dvorak, Dr. Rudolph. *Bakis Diwan.* Leiden. E. J. Brill.
Dyer, Louis. *The Olympian Theatron and the Battle of Olympia.* London: Journal of Hellenic Studies.
Farmer, John S. Ed. *Jacob and Esau.* London: T. C. & E. C. Jack.
Gordon, Charles W. *The Life of James Robertson.* Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.50 net.
Grandgent, Charles H. *The Cleomadis and Related Folk-Tales.* Cambridge: Modern Language Association.
Grenfell, Wilfrid T. A. *Man's Faith.* The Pilgrim Press.
Hasse, Adelaide R. *Index of Economic Material in Documents of the States of the United States.* California. Washington: Carnegie Institution.
Herford, Oliver. *The Smoker's Year Book.* Moffat, Yard & Co.
Heywood, John. *The Four P. P.* London: T. C. & E. C. Jack.
Johnson, Emory R. Ed. *Industrial Education.* Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
L'Inganno, Florence: F. Lumachi.
Locke, W. J. *Septimus.* John Lane Co. \$1.50.
Madach, Imre. *The Tragedy of Man.* The Arcadia Press. \$1.50 net.
Parkhurst, Rev. Charles H. *A Little Lower Than the Angels.* F. H. Revell Co. \$1.25 net.
Peters, Rev. John P. *Hilprecht's Answer.* Pickering, Prof. Edward C. Foreign Associates of National Societies.
Poe, Clarence H. *A Southerner in Europe.* Raleigh, N. C.: Mutual Pub. Co. 75c.
Pumpelly, Raphael, Ed. *Explorations in Turkestan.* 2 vols. Washington: Carnegie Institution.
Rogers, Robert W. *The Religion of Babylonia and Assyria.* Eaton & Mains. net.
Scoble, Andrew H. *Sun Time and Cloud Time.*
Severly, Melvin L. *Gillette's Industrial Solution.* Boston: Ball Pub. Co. \$1.50 net.
Sherman, P. Tecumseh. *General Sherman in the Last Year of the Civil War.*
Shurter, Edwin Du Bois. *Oratory of the South.* Neale Pub. Co. \$3.
Snow, Ellen. *The Confession of Seymour Van.* R. F. Fenno Co.
The Society of the Friendly Sons of St. Patrick in the City of New York. Rogers & Co.
Thompson, R. Campbell. *Semitic Magic.* London: Luzac & Co.
Trevena, John. *Heather.* Moffat, Yard & Co.
Ugarte, Manuel. *Las nuevas tendencias literarias.* Valencia: F. Sempere & Co.
Venn, J. A. *Oxford and Cambridge Matriculations, 1544-1906.* Cambridge: W. Heffer & Sons. 1s.
Wager, Lewis. *The Life and Repentance of Mary Magdalene.* London: T. C. & E. C. Jack.
Worcester, Elwood. *The Living Word.* Moffat, Yard & Co. \$1.50 net.

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